

Culture, expenses, and produce of three rods, field No. 1.

**THE**  
**CRITICAL REVIEW.**

For the Month of November, 1770.

**ARTICLE I.**

*A Course of Experimental Agriculture: Containing an exact Register of all the Business transacted during five Years on near three hundred Acres of various Soils; including a Variety of Experiments on the Cultivation of all Sorts of Grain and Pulse, both in the Old and New Methods; &c. In Two Vols. 4to. 2l. 10s. Doddsley. [Concluded.]*

**I**N our last Review we exhibited a few of the accurate experiments made by Mr. Young, for ascertaining the preference of the drill and broadcast husbandry, and are now to attend him through a farther consideration of that important subject.

He has here very judiciously dissented from the method made use of by other writers in drawing such a parallel. By most of them two or three drilled corps are generally taken, and the profit of them supposed to continue invariable for many years; while in others, drilled and broadcast crops are compared, not only growing, perhaps, in different fields, and the operations performed at different times, but which also had never been executed with a view to the comparison. Our author, on the contrary, in order to ascertain on which side the superiority prevails, introduces, as the subjects of comparison, two or three pieces of land, part of which had been cultivated for several years according to the old method of husbandry, and the rest for several upon the new plan. As these experiments contain at once the fairest and fullest trial of the subject in question, we think it necessary to extract the whole process.

Experiment N<sup>o</sup> 1.

\* Culture, expences, and produce of three roods, field M<sup>o</sup>,  
1764, &c.

\* *Culture.*] I chose three pieces of land of no larger size for this comparison on many accounts, which I have more than once explained, that the experiment might be totally under command, and no inequalities arise from not being able to act perfectly similar to three divisions. I could have taken three acres for it with as much ease as three roods, but the authority of the trial would not have been equal: three acres to each division would have pleased many, but then the authority would have been absolutely destroyed.

\* The soil of these roods is perfectly the same, a good gravelly loam sound enough for turneps, and at the same time strong and rich enough for wheat. The preceding culture had also been exactly the same; yielding barley in 1763, the stubble of which was ploughed up in November.

\* One of these roods I dedicated to the culture of wheat alone in the horse-hoeing husbandry, on the principle of Mr. Tull: this rood I shall call N<sup>o</sup> 1. Another I apply to the horse hoeing culture, but the crops varied; this is N<sup>o</sup> 2. The third is to be cropped in the common Suffolk method broadcast, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

\* My plan was to manure N<sup>o</sup> 2 and 3 equally, but not N<sup>o</sup> 1. in compliance with Mr. Tull also, though much against my own idea. I asked a friend's opinion on this point: and he was clearly in favour of manuring it like the rest, lest a false idea in Mr. Tull, should bring me into an unfair treatment of the mode.

\* Before I insert the register, I should observe here, (instead of numerous repetitions which I have struck out) that the treatment of the roods, was as similar as the case would allow; N<sup>o</sup> 1. being very different, could not be guided by either of the others, but the manure is precisely equal to all. N<sup>o</sup> 2, and 3, began each with turnips, for which crop every operation was performed at the same hour; but different crops following, the same rule could not afterwards be preserved. The general plan of doing equal justice to all according to their respective natures, was minutely executed, which I was enabled without difficulty to do from the smallness of the pieces.

Account of N<sup>o</sup> 1.

\* 1764.] Ploughed up the barley stubble in November, 1763. In March, 1764, gave it the first spring earth; ploughed it once more in April, and harrowed it thrice, this left it fine, and many weeds sprouting, they were turned down by the fourth earth, the first week in June; stirred it again in July; in August threw it into five feet ridges by the sixth earth; the first week in September manured them with five loads of rotten farm yard dung; turned it in by arching up the ridges, and harrowing once; drilled three rows of wheat at a foot asunder on each, leaving the intervals consequently three feet wide; the quantity of seed a peck and a half.

\* 1765.] The rows carried a very beautiful appearance through the spring; the first horse hoeing was given the 28th of March, turning a furrow from the rows, and throwing up a small ridge in the middle of each interval; hand hoed the rows the 10th of April with six inch hoes, and plucking out by hand the weeds that grew among the corn; May 9th, horse hoed the second time contrary



rary to the last, and the latter end of the month hand hoed again; June 13th, the third horse hoeing was given: and again the 8th of July for the last time, when the ridges were left in their first position. Throughout the season this crop carried a very fine appearance, notwithstanding the extreme drought; it was reaped the middle of August; product six bushels two pecks.

Expences.					£.	s.	d.
Seven ploughings,	—	—	—	—	0	1	9
Harrowing,	—	—	—	—	0	0	11
Manuring,	—	—	—	—	0	2	10
Drilling,	—	—	—	—	0	0	0
Seed,	—	—	—	—	0	1	10
Four horse hoeings,	—	—	—	—	0	0	8
Two hand-hoeings,	—	—	—	—	0	3	10
Reaping,	—	—	—	—	0	1	0
Harvesting,	—	—	—	—	0	0	6
Threshing,	—	—	—	—	0	1	6
					<hr/>		
Rent, &c.	—	—	—	—	0	14	1
					0	8	6
					<hr/>		
					1	2	7
Produce.] Six and a half bushels, at 2l. 2s.					1	14	1
Expences,					1	2	7
					<hr/>		
Profit,					0	11	5
Ploughing,	—	—	—	—	0	1	9
Harrowing,	—	—	—	—	0	0	11
Manuring	—	—	—	—	0	1	11
Drilling,	—	—	—	—	0	0	0
Harrowing,	—	—	—	—	0	1	7
Carting in harvest,	—	—	—	—	0	0	1
					<hr/>		
					0	5	7
Clear profit, 1l. 3s. 4d. per acre,					1	3	10

1766.] The last week in August, the stubble of the preceding crop was chopt; raked into heaps, and carted away, and the ridges directly reversed. The 23d of September arched them up by a second ploughing, harrowed twice and drilled each as before, with three rows of wheat, using a peck and a half of seed. The land in very favourable order from rain the 18th, &c. I took advantage of a remarkable fine season, the beginning of March, to give the first horse and hand-hoeings. The 25th of April horse hoed it again. May 17, hand hoed the rows again. The 28th, gave the third horse hoeing. June 18th, hand hoed it again, and weeded the rows very carefully. Such multitudes of showers had fallen, that the weeds arose so fast, that it was a matter of the greatest difficulty to keep them under; the 21st, horse hoed it for the last time; after this I found it necessary to give one more weeding. Reaped the 26th of August; produce, three bushels and one peck.

Expences.] Cutting and carting the stubble					0	1	3
Two ploughings,	—	—	—	—	0	0	6
Harrowing,	—	—	—	—	0	0	0
Drilling,	—	—	—	—	0	0	0
Seed,	—	—	—	—	0	1	11
Four horse-hoeing,	—	—	—	—	0	0	8
Three handhoeings,	—	—	—	—	0	2	4
					<hr/>		
					0	4	1

Y

One

						<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
One weeding,	—	—	—	—	—	0	1	0
Reaping	—	—	—	—	—	0	1	0
Harvesting,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	9
Threshing,	—	—	—	—	—	0	1	3
						0	11	10
Rent, &c.	—	—	—	—	—	0	4	3
						0	16	1
Produce.] Three bushels one peck, at 48s.	—	—	—	—	—	0	19	6
Expences,	—	—	—	—	—	0	16	1
Profit,	—	—	—	—	—	0	3	5
Ploughing,	—	—	—	—	0 1	2	1	
Harrowing,	—	—	—	—	0 0	2	1	
Drilling,	—	—	—	—	0 0	0	1	
Horse-hoeing,	—	—	—	—	0 1	0		
Carting,	—	—	—	—	0 0	1	1	
						0	2	6 1
Clear profit 3s. 5d. per acre,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	10 1

1767.] The first week in September, cut and carried the stubble as before, and reverse the ridges; the 15th arched them up, harrowed, and drilled them with treble rows as last year, using a peck and a half of seed. April 11th, hand hoed the rows; the 27th horse hoed for the first time. May 16th, hand hoed the second time. June the 5th, the second horse hoeing: the weeds came up as fast this year as the last, but I kept the corn quite clear of them. June 19th, hand hoed and weeded the rows; the 26th, horse hoed again, and the first week in July, the fourth and last; the 8th of the same month, another hand hoeing. Reaped the 22d of August; produce, two bushels, one peck:

Expences.] Cutting and carting the stubble,	—	—	—	—	—	0	1	3
Two ploughings,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	6
Harrowing,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	0 1
Drilling,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	0 1
Seed,	—	—	—	—	—	0	2	3
Four hoeings,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	8
Three hand ditto,	—	—	—	—	—	0	3	6
Two weedings,	—	—	—	—	—	0	1	9
Reaping,	—	—	—	—	—	0	1	0
Harvesting,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	9
Threshing,	—	—	—	—	—	0	0	10
						0	12	7 1
Rent,	—	—	—	—	—	0	14	3
						0	16	10 1
Produce.] Two bushels, one peck, at 48s.	—	—	—	—	—	0	13	6
Loss,	—	—	—	—	—	0	3	4 1
Ploughing,	—	—	—	—	0 1	2	1	
Harrowing,	—	—	—	—	0 0	2	1	
Drilling,	—	—	—	—	0 0	0	1	
Horse hoeing,	—	—	—	—	0 1	0		
Carting,	—	—	—	—	0 0	1	1	
						0	2	7
Total loss, 1l. 3s. 10d. per acre,	—	—	—	—	—	0	5	11 1

Recapi-



Recapitulation.			£.	s.	d.
1764 and 1765, profit per acre,	—	—	1	3	4
1766, ditto,	—	—	0	3	5
			1	6	9
1767, loss,	—	—	1	3	10
Profit on four years,	—	—	0	2	11

Account of N° II.

1764.] In November ploughed up the barley stubble; stirred it again in March following. Gave another ploughing in April, and three harrowings; leaving it in this manner till the last week in May; many weeds came up, which were buried by the fourth earth. June 9th, threw it on to five feet ridges, and manured it with five loads of rotten farm-yard dung; the 13th, turned it in by arching up the ridges. The 16th, harrowed them and drilled a double row on each ridge, sixteen inches asunder, with turnip seed. The plants came up very favourably; were strong enough to stand the hoe, July the 9th, when that operation was performed, setting them out to the distance of one foot from plant to plant; the 23d gave the first horse hoeing. August the 3d, hand hoed them again, cutting up all weeds; loosening the ground, and leaving the plants single that accident had left double before: the 9th, horse hoed them the second time: the 30th for the third time; each the reverse of the former. September the 8th, the fourth and last horse hoeing was given. At this time the turnips were advanced to a very large growth, to their full growth in the opinion of several who viewed them; but in this I differed from them, having seen broadcast crops with many larger roots. However, as I determined to drill the land with wheat, I offered them to sale to a farmer, who wanted some turnips to finish that fattening of 20 weathers; he refused to buy them by measure; but offered me 3d. a week per head, to eat them on the land. I accepted it. Before the sheep went in, I measured three perches, in the best, worst, and middling parts of the rood.

	Cwt.	qr.	lb.
N° 1. weighed topped and tailed,	2	0	0
2. — — —	1	3	14
3. — — —	1	3	0

Average, 1 cwt. 3 qr. 14 lb. which is per acre, 15 tons: and on the rood, 3 tons, 15 cwt. The sheep were turned in the 11th of September, and the rood lasted them rather better than five days; consequently paid 3s. 9d. at 5s. a week.

Expences.] Six ploughings,	—	—	—	0	1	6
Harrowing,	—	—	—	0	0	1½
Manuring,	—	—	—	0	2	10
Drilling,	—	—	—	0	0	0½
Seed,	—	—	—	0	0	1½
Two hand hoeings,	—	—	—	0	1	3
Four horse hoeings,	—	—	—	0	0	8
				0	6	6½
Rent,	—	—	—	0	4	3
				0	10	9½
Produce.] Sheep feed	—	—	—	0	3	9
Expences,	—	—	—	0	10	9½
Produce,	—	—	—	0	3	9
Loss,	—	—	—	0	7	0½
						Plough-

Ploughing,	—	—	0	1	6	
Harrowing,	—	—	0	0	2½	
Manuring,	—	—	0	1	11	
Drilling,	—	—	0	0	0½	
Horse hoeing,	—	—	0	0	5	
						0 4 0½
Total loss, 2l. 4s. 5d. per acre,						0 11 1½

1765.] September 19th, 1764, reversed the ridges whereon the turnips grew, and the 28th, arched them up. October 1st, drilled three rows of wheat on each ridge one foot asunder; using a peck and half of seed. The 28th of March, horse hoed for the first time, from the plants, throwing up a ridge in the middle of each interval. April 10th, hand hoed the rows, weeding them at the same. May 9th, the second horse hoeing, reversing the last; and hand hoed again the latter end of the Month. June 13th, the third horse hoeing, July 8th, the fourth and last. Reaped the middle of August, produce, four bushels, two pecks.

Expences] Two ploughings,	—	—	0	0	6	
Harrowing,	—	—	0	0	0½	
Drilling,	—	—	0	0	0½	
Seed,	—	—	0	1	10½	
Four horse-hoeings,	—	—	0	0	8	
Two hand-hoeings,	—	—	0	3	10	
Reaping,	—	—	0	1	0	
Harvesting,	—	—	0	0	6	
Threshing,	—	—	0	1	1½	
						0 9 7½
Rent, &c.	—	—	0	4	3	
						0 13 10½

Produce.] Four and a half bushel at 41s.	—	—	0	3	7½	
Expences,	—	—	0	13	10½	
Profit,	—	—	0	9	9	
Ploughing,	—	—	0	0	6	
Harrowing,	—	—	0	0	1	
Drilling,	—	—	0	0	0½	
Horse-hoeing,	—	—	0	1	7½	
Carting,	—	—	0	0	1½	
						0 2 4½
Clear profit 1l. 9s. 6d. per acre,						0 7 4½

1766.] Reversed the ridges of the wheat of 1765, the beginning of September; and the latter end of the month, arched the new ones up; in which state they were left during the winter. March 4th, plowed them down: the 15th, arched them up again: the 27th, harrowed and drilled them with treble rows of white pease; using two pecks of seed. April 25th, hand hoed the rows, and then horse hoed them, turning a furrow from the plants. May 13th, repeated the horse hoeing; the 17th, hand hoed again; the 28th gave the third horse hoeing. June 18th, the fourth; but a boy went before the plough in the two last hoeings, to turn the branches on to the rows; the trailing of the pea stalks is very inconvenient in the horse-hoeings. Hooked them the 8th of August; product, two bushels and three pecks.



<b>Expences.]</b> Four ploughings,	—	—	0	1	0
Harrowing,	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Drilling,	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Seed,	—	—	0	2	0
Four horse hoeings,	—	—	0	0	8
Turning aside the stalks,	—	—	0	0	2
Two hand hoeings,	—	—	0	1	9
Hooking,	—	—	0	0	6
Harvesting,	—	—	0	0	10
Threshing,	—	—	0	0	4

Rent,	—	—	0	7	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
	—	—	0	4	3
	—	—	0	11	7 $\frac{1}{2}$

<b>Produce.]</b> Two bushels three pecks, at 34s.	—	—	0	11	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
<b>Expences,</b>	—	—	0	11	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
<b>Profit,</b>	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ploughing,	—	—	0	2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Harrowing,	—	—	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Drilling,	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Horse-hoeing,	—	—	0	1	0
Carting,	—	—	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$

The above profit,	—	—	0	3	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
<b>Loss 14s. 10d. per acre,</b>	—	—	0	3	8 $\frac{1}{2}$

1767.] The first week in September, reversed the ridges. The 15th arched them up, harrowed and drilled them with wheat, three rows at one foot on each, using a peck and half of seed. From this time until the reaping, the conduct of the crop, was precisely the same, as that of N<sup>o</sup> 1. all operations of tillage, &c. given on the same day. The produce, two pecks and an half.

<b>Expences.]</b> Two ploughings,	—	—	0	0	6
Harrowing,	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Drilling,	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Seed,	—	—	0	2	3
Four horse hoeings,	—	—	0	0	8
Three hand ditto,	—	—	0	3	6
Two weedings,	—	—	0	1	9
Reaping,	—	—	0	1	0
Harvesting,	—	—	0	0	9
Threshing,	—	—	0	1	0

Rent, &c.	—	—	0	11	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
	—	—	0	4	3
	—	—	0	15	9 $\frac{1}{2}$

<b>Produce.]</b> Two bushels, two and an half pecks at 48s.	—	—	0	15	9
<b>Loss,</b>	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ploughing,	—	—	0	1	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Harrowing,	—	—	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Drilling,	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Horsehoeing,	—	—	0	1	0
Carting,	—	—	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$

<b>Total loss, 10s. 6d. per acre,</b>	—	—	0	2	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
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Recapitulation.				
1764, loss per acre,	—	—	—	£ 3 2
1766, ditto,	—	—	—	2 4 5
1767, ditto,	—	—	—	0 14 10
	—	—	—	0 10 6
1765, profit,	—	—	—	3 9 9
Loss in four years,	—	—	—	1 9 6
	—	—	—	2 10 3

Account of N<sup>o</sup> III.

1764.] Ploughed up the barley stubble in November 1763, and stirred it again in March following. In April ploughed it a third time, and gave it three harrowings: the last week in May ploughed in many weeds, that had arose after the preceding tillage. June 6th gave it the fifth earth, and manured it with five loads of rotten farm-yard dung; the 13th, turned it in, and the 16th, harrowed in the seed, broadcast sown: the plants rising very favourably, were hand hoed the 9th of July; and for the second time the 3d of August. In December measured three perches fairly chosen in the best, worst, and middling parts of the rood, and the weights were as follows:

		Cwt. qr. lb.		
N <sup>o</sup> 1.	—	3	3	0
2.	—	3	2	0
3.	—	3	1	7

Average, 3 cwt. 2 qrs. which is 28 tons per acre; and on the rood, 7 tons. In this month they were eat, on the land by twenty sheep, at 3d. per head per week; and maintained them eleven days, which come to 7s. 10d.

Expences.] Six ploughings,	—	—	—	0 1 6
Harrowing,	—	—	—	0 0 1 1/2
Manuring,	—	—	—	0 2 10
Seed,	—	—	—	0 0 3
Sowing,	—	—	—	0 0 0 1/2
Two hand hoeings,	—	—	—	0 1 7 1/2
	—	—	—	0 6 4 1/2
Rent,	—	—	—	0 4 3
	—	—	—	0 10 7 1/2
Produce.] Sheep feed,	—	—	—	0 7 10
Loss,	—	—	—	0 2 5 1/2
Ploughing,	—	—	—	0 1 6
Harrowing,	—	—	—	0 0 2 1/2
Manuring,	—	—	—	0 1 11
	—	—	—	0 3 7 1/2
Total loss, 1l. 6s. 5d. per acre,	—	—	—	0 6 5

1765.] Ploughed up the turnip land the 23d of March. The 10th of April, stirred it again; and a third time, the 18th; upon which earth, harrowed in one bushel of barley, and at the same time a quarter of a peck of clover seed. The weather was various till the 10th of May; but in general very showery, warm, growing weather; the barley came up very favourably, and made a good appearance. The rest of the month in general very dry; after that came a very severe drought, which stunted the growth of all crops. Mowed it the middle of August. Product, one quarter and one peck.

Ex-



			£.	s.	d.
Expences.]	Three ploughings,	_____	0	0	9
	Harrowing,	_____	0	0	1
	Seed,	_____	0	2	4
	Sowing,	_____	0	0	0
	Rolling,	_____	0	0	0
	Mowing,	_____	0	0	3
	Harvesting,	_____	0	0	6
	Threshing,	_____	0	1	0
			0	5	1
Rent,	_____	_____	0	4	3
			0	9	4
Produce.]	1 qr. 1 peck, at 24s.	_____	1	4	9
Expences,	_____	_____	0	9	4
			0	15	4
Ploughing,	_____	_____	0	1	9
Harrowing,	_____	_____	0	0	2
Carting,	_____	_____	0	0	1
			0	2	1
Clear profit,	2l. 13s. 1d. per acre,	_____	0	13	3

1766.] The extreme dryness of the year 1765, prevented the clover making any figure; after harvest some was to be seen, but not enough to determine then, whether it had succeeded or failed. In autumn it appeared more; and in the spring gave me hope of a fine regular crop. Mowed it for hay the 27th of June, product 10½ cwt. which I sold the following winter for 1l. September 1st, cut it for hay again; heavy rain the 2d, but did not damage the clover; product 9½ cwt. Sold in the winter for 13s.

Expences.]	½ peck of seed at 20s.	_____	0	1	3
	Sowing,	_____	0	0	0
	Mowing, making, &c. twice,	_____	0	3	6
			0	4	9
Rent, &c.	_____	_____	0	4	3
			0	9	0
Produce.]	First cutting,	_____	1	0	0
	Second ditto,	_____	0	13	0
			1	13	0
Expences,	_____	_____	0	9	0
Profit,	_____	_____	1	3	11
Carting,	_____	_____	0	0	5
Clear profit,	4l. 14s. 1d. per acre,	_____	1	3	6

1767.] Ploughed up the clover lay the 21st of October; it broke in fine crumbling order: harrowed in two pecks of wheat seed; a few thistles were cut once; reaped in August; the produce five bushels.

Expences.]	Ploughing,	_____	0	0	4
	Harrowing,	_____	0	0	1
	Water-furrowing,	_____	0	0	0
	Seed,	_____	0	3	0
	Sowing,	_____	0	0	0
	Thistling,	_____	0	0	3
	Reaping,	_____	0	1	3
	Harvesting,	_____	0	0	6
	Threshing,	_____	0	1	10
			0	7	6
Rent,	_____	_____	0	4	3
			0	11	9

Produce.] Four bushels at 47s.	—	—	—	£. s. d.
One ditto, at 40s.	—	—	—	1 3 6
				0 5 0
				1 8 6
Expences,	—	—	—	0 11 9½
Profit,	—	—	—	0 16 8½
Ploughing,	—	—	0 0 7½	
Harrowing,	—	—	0 0 5½	
Carting,	—	—	0 0 1½	
				0 1 2½
Clear profit, 3l. 2s. 2d. per acre,	—	—	—	0 15 6½

## General View of this Experiment.

## Proportions, per Acre.

N<sup>o</sup> 1. Drill husbandry; wheat every year.

Crops.	Expences.	Product.	Prod. Cash.	Profit and Loss.
	£. s. d.	qrs. bush.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
1764, fallow	{ — 5 13 2	3 2 —	6 16 6	Profit, 1 3 4
1765, wheat,				
1766, wheat,	— 3 14 7	1 5 —	3 18 0	Profit, 0 3 5
1767, wheat,	— 3 17 10	1 1 —	2 14 0	Loss, 1 3 10
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Totals,	— 13 5 7	7 0 —	13 8 6	Profit, 0 2 11
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Average,	* 3 6 4½	2 2½†	4 9 6½	* 0 0 8½

N<sup>o</sup> 2. Drill Husbandry; different crops.

Expences.	Product.	Product. Cash.	Profit and Loss.
£. s. d.		£. s. d.	£. s. d.
1764, turnips,	15 tons	0 15 0	Loss, 2 4 5
1765, wheat,	2 qrs. 2 bush.	4 14 0	Profit, 1 9 6
1766, pease,	1 qr. 3 bush.	2 6 9	Loss, 0 14 10
1767, wheat,	1 qr. 2½ bush.	3 3 0	Ditto, 0 10 6
Totals,	—	10 18 9	Loss, 2 0 3
Average,	—	2 14 8½	0 10 0½

N<sup>o</sup> 3. Broadcast husbandry.

£. s. d.		£. s. d.	£. s. d.
1764, turnips,	28 tons	1 11 4	Loss, 1 6 5
1765, barley,	4 qrs. 1 bush.	4 19 0	Profit, 2 13 1
1766, clover,	3 ton 19 cwt.	6 12 0	Profit, 4 14 1
1767, wheat,	2 qrs. 4 bush.	5 14 0	Profit, 3 2 2
Totals,	—	18 16 4	Profit, 9 2 11
Average,	—	4 14 1	2 5 8½

## Comparison.

Expences.]	Average per annum,	drill husbandry; wheat every year,	£. s. d.
Ditto drill husbandry; different crops,	—	—	3 6 4½
Superiority of the latter,	—	—	3 4 11½
			0 1 5½

\* Averages of four years.

† Ditto of three years. Average product of four years, 3l. 7s. 1½d.

Wheat



	£.	s.	d.
Wheat every year, ————	3	6	4½
Broadcast husbandry, ————	2	8	2
Superiority of the latter, ————	0	18	2½
Drill husbandry, different crops, ————	3	4	11½
Broadcast husbandry, ————	2	8	2
Superiority of the latter, ————	0	16	9½

Produce.

Broadcast, average <i>per annum</i> , of four years, ————	4	14	1
Drill husbandry; wheat every year, average <i>per annum</i> , 4 years, ————	3	7	1½
Superiority of the former, ————	1	6	11½
Broadcast, average of four years, ————	4	14	1
Drill husbandry, change of crops ditto, ————	2	14	8½
Superiority of former, ————	1	19	4½
Drill husbandry; wheat every year ————	3	7	1½
Ditto, different crops, ————	2	14	8½
Superiority of the former, ————	0	13	5½

Profit and Loss.

Broadcast; average profit <i>per annum</i> , ————	2	5	8½
Drill husbandry; wheat every year ditto, ————	0	0	8½
Superiority of the former, ————	2	5	0
Broadcast profit, ————	2	5	8½
Drill husbandry, different crops; loss, ————	0	10	0½
Superiority of the former, ————	2	15	9½

After the experiment last mentioned, we are presented with the following observations.

' This experiment is absolutely decisive; comparisons may be drawn up between the old and new husbandry, from the various culture of different fields; but unless a perfect similarity respecting soil, time, &c. be observed, no conclusions can be drawn from them. I have had during these years, many crops of all sorts, in both cultures, much better than any of these; I have had many others much worse but their result cannot be compared, because the respective operations were not executed with an eye to the comparison. It clearly appears, that under the circumstances of this comparison, the common husbandry is infinitely superior to the drill culture: also, that the mode of drilling wheat every year, is much better than changing the crops in the manner above-mentioned; notwithstanding a year's fallow is charged to the one and not to the other.

' That the superiority of the broadcast, to the drilled, wheat every year, is not owing to the expence of a fallow on the latter, and not on the former, clearly appears, from the first drilled crop being far more profitable than any of the rest: if the fallow is struck out, and only the two last crops is taken, the superiority of the broadcast will be much greater.

' I should remark, that the broadcast husbandry here practised is very good; it is the common practise of our best farmers on their gravelly loams: I have pursued it with equal profit over whole fields, but I have practised a much worse husbandry in many others; such variations might be expected in the culture of many acres.

The

The course of 1° turnips, 2° barley, 3° clover, 4° wheat, is good: manuring for the turnips, and feeding them on the land, ensures great crops during the rest of the course, as our best husbandmen always experience. I do not think a better system for these soils can be discovered: but on the other hand, the drill culture, with change of crops, enjoys the same advantage, without, however, making the same return; the turnip crop being much inferior, does not improve the land equally, and clover not being possible, the most profitable crop is lost, and also the most profitable preparation for wheat. I know not on this soil another drill course that promised fairer.

Gentlemen who on different soils, and with different plants, have succeeded better, may start their objections; doubtless, more skilful practitioners of the new husbandry may have ground for objections; but I request them, at the same time, to calculate the circumstances, and see if they will equal the great superiority here noted of the common method; if their soil is better, then the broadcast crops would be proportionably greater.

It appears, that both the modes of drilling, are more expensive than the common method, by 16s. or 18s. *per ann.* which is the amount of a rent: this is a considerable disadvantage, when the profit is not proportioned. The broadcast husbandry, is just sixty times as beneficial as drilled wheat, every year on the same land. Suppose the fee simple to be thirty years purchase, the worth *per acre*, is 24l. 10s. the superiority *per acre, per annum*, of the old husbandry, 2l. 5s. consequently the superior profit of it, more than equals the fee simple in twelve years. The drill culture, with a change of crops being inferior to wheat every year, the superiority of the old is of course much greater.

In such a comparison, the general cast of the season should not be forgotten. The year 1764, was inclinable to wet; 1765, remarkably dry; 1766, and 1767, as remarkably wet: advantages or disadvantages may have arisen from this circumstance to both cultures, but the equality between the three is perfect, nor did the management of the crops occasion the superiority being on the side of the old husbandry. The strongest circumstances in the character of these seasons were 1765, being remarkably unfavourable to turnips, and very favourable to wheat, and 1766 and 1767 being in general unfavourable to corn; from which it appears, that the drilled had the advantage, both being wheat in 1765.

In one particular, this trial is not complete; the value of the straw and chaff is not carried to account; this was owing partly to neglect, and partly to the difficulty of valuing it accurately: but it is not of consequence, as the certainty of the advantage being on the side of the broadcast is indubitable, it could therefore only strengthen the preceding arguments.

No evidence can possibly be more convincing than what is here adduced of the superiority of the broadcast to the drilled method of husbandry; and we have, therefore, the pleasure to hope, that the result of these accurate experiments will operate towards a general establishment of the author's conclusion.

We shall now pass from the comparison of the methods of husbandry, to take a view of some of its products: but having reason to be satisfied of the accuracy with which the experiments



periments on that subject also are conducted, and as we have already been so profuse of extracts in the important article first discussed, it will be sufficient here to relate only a few of the author's most remarkable observations. Upon one of the many trials which he made on tares, he says,

' This experiment is a fresh proof of the great profit of tares for hay. I have no barley or oats this year in equally common management that come near this crop in profit; and this without reckoning the very great advantage of sowing those crops, which clean and ameliorate the soil, rather than such as foul and exhaust it. This is a distinction which cannot be too well considered: for the importance, in a long run, of keeping the vegetable food on the increase in the fields which compose your farm, is prodigious. —Wheat, barley, and oats, would reduce the land almost to a *caput mortuum*; at least to such a condition, that the seed would not be reaped, when no crop would thrive in it, unless well manured. But it is not in the power of man to bring the land into the same state by any of the pulse kind, though they were left to perfect their seed; much less when mown for hay in a state of fresh succulency. Hence let me venture strongly to recommend to such farmers as are desirous of being good husbandmen, to make use of tares for hay in such fields as do not ensure them very good crops of barley and oats. This crop of tares pays me 46s. per acre, clear profit. The benefit they are of to the land, compared with the mischief done by barley or oats, cannot possibly be valued at less than 15s. One of those crops must, therefore, have paid me 3l. 15s. per acre, clear profit; or I should, on comparison with the tares, have been a loser by it: but not one crop of barley or oats in fifty pays 3l. clear, even including those that are managed in the best common manner: 5 quarters of barley, at 16s. are but 4l. total product; which is far enough from equalling 3l. clear profit. What then are we to think of the numerous crops of two quarters of barley and oats; and 2½? which are very common in this country. How little will such bear comparing with this of tares! Had I sown this field with barley, I should have had about 2 quarters and a half per acre, or about 3 of oats: I am very confident the crops would not have exceeded that proportion: the amount of them would something more than have paid expences, but would not have left 10s. an acre profit. Whereas by sowing tares, I have 46s. profit, and my land ready for wheat, with which grain I shall sow it; but after barley or oats, it must have been thrown by for a fallow: so immense is the difference between these methods! —

' The culture of tares for hay, carries in these experiments a very advantageous appearance: but not more advantageous than the reality; for I am strongly persuaded that the only reason of their not being more cultivated for this purpose is owing to their not being better known. What the reason is that has induced all our husbandry writers to omit this branch, —or at least to pass it over very superficially, I know not: but as to an experiment on them, no library can produce an instance. The object has deserved much more attention than it ever met with from those gentlemen: but I shall first lay before the reader the average of the preceding trials. —

' These tables at once open a view, that has not been sufficiently contemplated. We find that tares, under the variation of season and

and culture met with in these trials, yield, upon an average, 3 tons 3 cwt. of dry hay; a most advantageous produce, and much superior, all things considered, to the general average of wheat, barley, and oats in this country. A clear profit of 2*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.* per acre, is not gained in one farm here in forty. But the mere amount is not the only circumstance; this profit is gained from an ameliorating crop, one which exhausts the land so little, that scarcely any prepare better for corn. This is a point of very great importance, and it certainly is undoubted. I know from various and repeated experiments, that a very thick crop of tare-hay prepares better for either wheat or barley than a fallow, though it consists of a year's tillage; and that the tare-fallow will break up for barley and clover even in finer tilth than the tillage one. The common farmers have a very just idea of this part of their business: from long experience they find, that some crops exhaust the land more than others: they find that if they gain a great crop of pease or tares, the wheat or barley that succeeds very seldom fails of being a good crop; and this observation is so strong and repeated, that very good farmers, who would scorn to sow wheat after barley, would, on no account, omit sowing it after a good crop of tares or pease.

‘ My own particular trials give me the greatest reason to justify this practice: but if it is so beneficial to follow a seed crop of these vegetables with corn, how much more advantageous must it be to cut them for hay while in their full succulency, and before the seed is formed! In this method, the benefit the land receives from them is very great: undoubtedly equal to a fallow. There is a further advantage in a crop of tare hay when compared with a fallow, highly sufficient to turn the scale, if it did not already kick the beam, which is the quantity of manure arising from feeding the hay. Whatever cattle are fed with it, will undoubtedly raise a considerable portion of dung: which dung must be spread on the land, and then the barley and clover compared which grows on the tare-land so manured, with that on the fallow unmanured. This is a point always to be carried to account when crops are under consideration that are food for cattle: for if the mere product is alone considered, perhaps the greatest article is forgotten. This I am sure is the case with turnips fed on the land by sheep.

‘ But this husbandry of raising tares for hay is, in all respects, valuable. There are many farms that have not a sufficiency of meadow ground; in which case some of their occupiers have repeated the sowing of clover till the land is quite tired of it; at least according to the opinion of many very sensible farmers. But supposing the idea to be false, yet the importance of being able to raise other hay besides clover, will often be indisputable.

‘ There are a great many uses to which tare-hay may be applied, so as to pay the fair value of it,—which is (at the lowest) the average price of common hay: horses thrive much better on it than on any meadow or pasture hay in the world. There is none exceeds it for fattening beasts of all sorts, either to fat them with alone, or the more profitable method of giving it with turnips, or other green food. In that way also sheep much affect it, and will with turnips scarcely ever be gripped by it. All sorts of young cattle thrive excellently on it. In all or any of these uses a penetrating farmer can never be at a loss to make the value of his hay by expending it at home,



\* I shall venture to recommend his substituting tares for hay, instead of all those crops of barley and oats, which are sown without clover: tares will not do for the sowing clover: the farmer must, therefore, sow enough barley for his annual quantity of clover; but I should, on every account, persuade him to use tares, instead of all the rest. His immediate profit will undoubtedly be greater; and the collateral articles of raising of manure, and cleaning and ameliorating his fields, infinitely exceed his former management.

\* The grand objection to pursuing this conduct, and which is the reason why the husbandry of cattle flourishes no more, is the farmers want of money. A poor farmer, instead of raising the cattle, which he has not money to purchase, aims at raising only such products as he can sell at market for money; and the misfortune is, that such products are most of them of the exhausting kind.

\* The average profit of these experiments is 2*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.* now if barley, oats, or wheat, had been substituted, the reader may easily conceive what a deduction would have ensued. Every one of these crops succeeded corn, and received but two ploughings:—wheat could not be thought of, and what could be expected of barley in such circumstances? The very profit of the tares amounts to 3½ quarters of barley, exclusive of all the expences; and yet it is certain the land would not have yielded 3½ quarters. It is the same with oats: from whence we clearly find, that tares for hay will yield very advantageous crops, when barley or oats would be losing ones.

From the experiments which the author has made on lentils, he concludes, that that commodity does not appear to be an object of any importance for hay upon soils that will yield large crops of tares.

Our author afterwards relates several decisive experiments on the various kinds of pulse and roots, together with cabbages, all which are worthy of attention. In every subject of which he treats, he discovers the same judgment and precision; and we shall only observe upon the whole, that the minuteness and accuracy of the experiments which this work contains, with the variety of objects on which they have been made, and the useful observation upon them, cannot fail to recommend it to the attention of those, who are particularly interested in the improvement of agriculture, and by such it will be regarded as a valuable register of facts relating to that art.

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II. *A Journey from London to Genoa, through England, Portugal, Spain, and France.* By Joseph Baretti, Secretary for Foreign Correspondence to the Royal Academy of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture. Four Vols. 8vo. 16*s.* T. Davies. [Concluded.]

**I**N our last Review we left Mr. Baretti at Frega, the last Arragonian town on the borders of Catalonia. His sociable companion the Canon of Sigüenza here gave him an account of the language and character of the people of Biscay. But

But as Mr. Baretti travelled through Biscay some years after the date of these letters, and examined it carefully, he suppresses the Canon's narrative, and gives us his own observations on that country; which, as they are distinct, and sensible, and as that part of the world is not much visited by Englishmen, must be entertaining to his readers.

From these observations we shall make a short extract on the Biscayan tongue, which deserves some attention, as it differs from all the other European languages.

'The most capital Bascuenze-work is doubtless the folio Dictionary, compiled by the above named father Laramendi, a Jesuit. The dictionary bears the title of Trilingue, because it runs in Bascuenze, Castilian, and Latin. As it has been printed only once, it is now become so scarce, that I could not find a copy of it any where, much to my disappointment, as I am informed that its preface, though penned in a most turgid strain, contains a great deal of rare erudition.

'Next the Dictionary comes the Grammar, composed by the same author, and oddly intitled *El imposible vencido*, *The impossibility conquered*. In that Grammar the Bascuenze is explained by the Castilian. I am told it has gone through several editions. I have that, which was printed at Salamanca, in 1729, and have repeatedly looked into it; but not yet to any purpose. In the prologo, or preface, it is said, that *el Bascuenze es una lengua que congenia poco con las otras*, "the genius of the Biscayan bears no great affinity to that of other languages;" and my reader will easily give credit to this assertion, when he is told, that you say in Spanish, for instance, that BREAD is good *para aquel que lo come*, "for him who eats it;" which phrase is rendered in the Biscayan language by one word only: *jatenduenarentzat*. But, though this is only one word, says father Laramendi, we must consider it as a compound of several; as *jaten* stands for the word *comer*; *du* for the accusative *lo*; *en* or *end* for the relative *que*; and *arentzat* for the pronoun *aquel* followed by the article *para*.

'How easily a language thus constructed is to be learned, this only specimen may possibly give an idea. But, were it ever so easy, no great proficiency could be made in it by studying it out of the country where it is spoken, as, besides Laramendi's Dictionary and Grammar, the number of books printed in Bascuenze is, as I said, quite inconsiderable. Eleven small volumes of Spiritual Discourses and Pious Meditations, a translation of Kempis's Imitation of Christ, another translation of Scupoli's Spiritual Combat, a short Catechism, about half a dozen small Collections of Prayers in prose, and



of Spiritual Songs in verse, are almost the only works to be found printed in this language. I leave my reader to judge whether it would be possible to learn it out of the country by means of the small portion of it, that is contained in so limited a library. But, was it even possible, would it be worth the while?

' I remember to have once read in an English Magazine an account of an Irish priest, who, travelling through Biscay, could make shift with his Irish tongue, to understand the Biscayans and be understood by them. But whether the author of that account imposed upon the public or not, let the reader determine by the help of the following transcription of the Lord's Prayer in Biscayan and Irish. I divide it into sentences, that any body may with the greater ease judge by the eye, whether there is any affinity between the two tongues.'

By this specimen of the Biscayan and Irish, with which we shall not trouble our readers, it appears that there is not the least resemblance between the two languages. The latter of the two following paragraphs concludes his remarks on the Biscayan.

' At the end of his Grammar father Laramendi gives a few specimens of Biscayan poetry, which to him appear very fine things; and such they may be for what I know to the contrary; but his Spanish translations of them, give but a very indifferent idea of the originals. I see by the last syllables of the Biscayan verses, that the Biscayan poets make use of *assonancés* as well as *rhymes* in their versification. Which of the two have a better effect, I cannot determine: it is however not improbable, but that the *assonancés* were adopted by the Biscayans in humble imitation of the Spaniards.

' Both in Biscay and Navarre I have listened to the songs as well as the speech of the people, and thought the sound of both dialects full as harmonious as those of Castile and Tuscany. Both Navarrans and Biscayans pronounce every letter very distinctly, and mark the cadence of each line so well, when they recite verses, as to render it sensible even to those who do not understand their language. Yet Mr. John Farrel, an elderly Irish merchant, who has resided in Biscay ever since he was a boy, and with whom I travelled from Bilbao to San Sebastián, told me that the Biscayan language is coarse and indelicate in its expressions, though clear and sonorous to the ear, whatever father Laramendi may say in praise of its elegance in the prefaces to his Dictionary and Grammar: nor does Mr. Farrel's assertion clash with common sense, as a language not cultivated by numerous writers, must of necessity be to a certain degree unpolished and savage.'

The description of that part of Catalonia which lies between Alcaraz and Piera is lively and striking.

We cannot omit quoting the history of the fair foundress of the Benedictine convent of Montferate near Igualada. The romance, though extravagant, is amusing; nor is it without its moral instruction. Though it has neither probability nor art to recommend it, yet it excites a just horror against acts of cruelty; and the miraculous events which it relates, strongly exemplify the credulity and weakness of uncultivated minds.

About the middle of the ninth century, when Catalonia was governed by its own sovereigns with the title of counts, there was one of them who had an only daughter no less beautiful than good.

That princess had scarce reached fourteen, when she took into her head to turn hermitess; nor was it in the power of her father's remonstrances, her mother's tears, her lover's sighs, and the people's intreaties, to make her change so strange a resolution. She gave orders for a cell to be built in the wildest part of the mountain now called Montferrate, where she retired quite alone to lead a life of prayer and penance, feeding upon acorns and berries, and drinking of the limpid stream.

On the same mountain, and at no great distance from the royal maiden's abode, there lived a hermit called Guarino, who, though in the prime of youth, had already gone through so many voluntary austerities and sufferings, that he was reputed to be as great a saint as St. Jerom, St. Hilary, or St. Macarius.

The devil, as you may well think, did not look upon this pair with a favourable eye. He was afraid lest their virtue should prove contagious, and resolved to oppose its effects. To obtain his wicked end, he tempted Guarino to go and pay a visit to the princess, under the notion of encouraging her, and he encouraged himself, to persevere in their holy course of life. The visits by degrees grew more frequent than was necessary. The consequence of them was, that the devil's scheme took place, and the princess began to swell about the hips, to the immense grief of the poor hermit, who now saw himself in the imminent danger of losing a reputation for sanctity, which he had laboured hard to acquire.

*Abyssus abyssum invocat.* What did the wicked Guarino do, in order to hide his wicked sin? Alas! he cut the young lady's throat, and secretly buried her body under a heap of stones!

The dreadful feat being atchieved; Guarino went on in his wonted course, and continued a while to impose himself for a saint upon the few inhabitants of the wilderness. But his crime, though it escaped the notice of others, never could escape



escape his own; and the consciousness of it tormented him so much, and so incessantly, that, unable to bear it, he resolved at last, to take a journey to Rome, to confess himself to the Pope, and sue for that absolution which, he thought, never could be granted him by any body but his Holiness.

‘ The Pope’s hair stood an end upon hearing of so horrible a crime, and told Guarino it was not to be expiated but by going back to his hermitage quite naked and upon four, like a beast; adding that he was never to attempt walking in an erect posture again, until he received a positive command from heaven to do so.

‘ The injunction was hard; yet Guarino complied with it. He stripped and began his journey back to Montferrate. In a little time his hair grew so long all about his body, that he looked rather like a bear, than like a human creature.

‘ Thus did Guarino crawl about for some years, avoiding as much as he could the few habitations that were in the mountain, hiding himself in a cavern by day, and going only towards night in search of food.

‘ It happened one day, that the count of Catalonia, father to the murdered young lady, being upon a hunting match, saw Guarino as he attempted to clamber over a cliff to get some wild roots. The sight of so extraordinary a monster made the prince approach in order to attack it; but finding it was not so wild as he had conceived at first sight, and that it suffered two or three blows in a most humble posture, he ordered his attendants to chain it, and carry it to Barcelona, where he used to keep it in his own apartment, feeding it with crusts and bones as he was at dinner, and often diverting himself and his courtiers by kicking it about, and making it continually play a thousand anticks.

‘ This kind of life proved much more hard and mortifying to Guarino, than that of wandering about the mountains. Yet he bore it with such perfect patience and resignation, that at last it atoned for his crime. One day as the count was at his dinner, and the monster by him, a tremendous voice resounded from on high, that said, “ Rise up Guarino, rise up: thy sin is forgiven.”

‘ The poor penitent, who had long wished in vain for such a command, stood presently upon two, and turning his eyes up to heaven, spoke a prayer of thanks with audible voice and fervent emotion.

‘ You may well imagine the surprize both of the count and his attendants at this unexpected adventure. Having thus broken his septennial silence, Guarino related with a flood of tears his whole story to the thunder-struck sovereign, and im-

plored a pardon which was easily granted. The count ordered him to be washed and cloathed; then went with him to the mountain in search of the place where his unhappy daughter had been murdered, with an intention to give her remains a more decent burial than they had had from her pitiless lover. When lo! miracle upon miracle! They found the princess alive just by the place where she had received the wound, which was still open, and the blood still streaming down her breast to the ground.

'Who will attempt to tell the mixed grief and joy of a father at such a sight! He had her taken directly to her cell, where a surgeon soon cured her. It is needless to tell, that she had repented time enough the sins committed with Guarino, and recommended herself so fervorously to the Virgin Mary at the time he drew his knife upon her, that the Virgin Mary took pity on her, and preserved her life in that wonderful manner.

'As soon as the princess was restored to her former health, she ordered a church and convent to be erected on the very spot where Guarino had treated her so barbarously. The church she dedicated to her patroness, not only for the favour received, but also because a most miraculous image of her had been found concealed just about that time in one of the many hollows, that are about the mountain.

'As to the convent, the princess begged of her father that it should be given to the Benedictine monks, who have successively been in possession of it from that time to this day.'

The six chapters immediately following that from which we have made this quotation, chiefly contain an account of the industry, agriculture, various improvements, and manners of the Catalonians. They deserve better to be known, they afford more matter to a traveller than the rest of the Spaniards; and Mr. Baretti has judiciously given them his particular attention.

Mr. Baretti tells us that he and his companions were ordered by an officer, in a very rude manner, to produce their passports at the gate of Girona. The officer kicked one of their muleteers, for betraying some impatience at being needlessly detained. This brutality recalls to his mind the similar behaviour of the old Colonel at San Pedro, which he relates in his forty-second letter. These accidents unfortunately lead our author into a political disquisition, in which he does not acquit himself very philosophically; for instead of making a fair comparison of cases, and determining accordingly, he is misguided by local impressions and habits of thinking.

He seems only to have discovered, when he reflected on the insolence of those two Spanish officers, that military power is  
very



very great in Spain as well as in Piedmont; though he might have known that the oppression of the sword is a necessary consequence of arbitrary government. After a transient compliment to the British constitution, by which the persons and properties of our countrymen are secured from the insults and rapine of the army and of the great, he is weak enough gravely to compare a mild and equal distribution of liberty with an unlimited monarchy; and to infer that the trifling inconveniences which result from the former, are as great as those which flow from the latter.

He founds his inference upon another false principle. Because a Spanish grandee would be extremely shocked if such liberty should be taken with him in his country, as an English nobleman must sometimes put up with from an English mob, he thinks the licentiousness of the lower people with us hath as bad effects as the despotism of Spain.

This is not a rational, manly way of arguing. If we would judge properly of any form of government, we must not consider how its consequences operate upon weak and prejudiced minds; but how far they are, in their own nature, beneficial, or injurious to mankind.

Mr. Baretti is industrious to enumerate the shocking evils that flow from the English constitution; but he skims over those which result from the political systems of Spain and his own country.

And pray what are the dreadful calamities which he observes are consequent of British liberty?

Why, 'the English populace will too often force even a lord to give a silly cry in favour of this and that candidate at an election, and tumble a gentleman into the mud, or sling dirt at his coach, or break his windows, upon their coming to the knowledge that such a gentleman is not of the party, which mere chance, or fondness for noise, or some such other potent cause, has made them espouse the day or the week before. The English populace will stop the vehicle of a lady going to a mask, and force her with a most arbitrary violence to uncover her face, that they may look at her: a piece of rudeness that nothing could reconcile mankind to, but the fondest partiality to national abuses and irregularities when grown inveterate. What signifies enumerating instances of the contemptuous irreverence, with which the high in England are treated by the low? Too many might be produced, that would make a Spaniard shudder as much as I did at the brutal conduct of the officer of to-day.'

Could any man have mentioned these circumstances with such terms of horror, but one who had been born and bred

in a country where office and title are almost the sole distinctions between one man and another; and where he who has the least rank, looks upon his fellow-men of inferior stations to be likewise beneath him in the order of existence.

The author indeed makes one exception against our constitution, which it will be difficult to get over. Our unpolished Britons, not so well trained to gallantry as the soft Italians, may compel a lady to show her face, who is going to the serious, important, and honourable business of a masquerade. This is a monstrous state-grievance; the nation which allows it must renounce all pretensions to policy; the confusion of anarchy must reign there, not the civil harmony produced by salutary laws.

Yet a bold Englishman who connects the ideas of monarchy and freedom, will not view this, and the other affronts offered by our populace to the great, with that abhorrence which they excite in Mr. Baretti's mind. He will not regret that even a lord is sometimes tumbled into the mud, because such little events are the necessary consequences of the best government in the world, and because *that* lord is probably a very dirty fellow before he is thrown into the mire. Though an enemy to scurrility and outrages, these scenes of popular ardour will afford him a pleasing recollection: he will consider that while such bold attacks are ventured, we must continue free; that they are often made upon the worthless, upon those who elude the punishment of the laws; that they often assert, and contribute to redress the violated rights of the people. Thus, while shallow politicians attributed the commotions in old Rome to the defective form of its government; or to the uncontrollable temper of the Romans, the sage Montesquieu assigned them other causes. He saw that they were the necessary effervescences of a free and military people, jealous of their liberty, and conscious of their valour, and greatness; and that the ambition of the tribunes, and the ardour of the populace, only tended to enlarge and complete the august republican fabrick.

But it would be no wonder if this language of the lover of liberty, should seem absurdity and delirium to a man who has been long accustomed to revere the edicts of the cabinet of Turin.—Let us hasten to the conclusion of this argument.

‘Which of the two evils, says Mr. Baretti is the lighter; the insolence of the great to the small, or of the small to the great?’—If we should ask whether the bite of a fly, or the stroke of a broad-sword inflicts a more cruel wound, could any one be at a loss to reply?

But



But the cause of freedom shall not be trusted to light, and precarious similes. A fair induction of facts will carry along with it an answer to Mr. Baretti's question.

In England then we allow that a nobleman may be insulted by a mob, that they may break his windows, and compel his fair lady to uncover the charms of her face when she is going to a masquerade; though such offenders may be punished by law, if their offences can be proved against them. People of all ranks with us have the resource of law when they are injured: but happily for the subjects of Britain, its constitution authorizes not punishment without the previous evidence of guilt. Justice is the impartial guardian of the inhabitants of this island; the person and property of our meanest commoner and our noblest peer are equally her care.

But this is not quite the case at Madrid and Turin. In the dominions of the kings of Spain and Sardinia, an innocent subject may be ruined by the wantonness of power. He may be imprisoned, or deprived of life by a jealous, or a revengeful minister. In those realms of slavery, a stripling, ignorant of every thing but the exorbitant privileges which his cockade and sword give him, may beat an honest peasant, from the caprice of youth and passion; and if that peasant applies for redress to civil or military jurisdiction, he may be condemned to the galleys for having shown disrespect to a gentleman who is an ensign, and whose father is a count.

From this view of the effects of the British and Spanish governments it will appear how strongly prejudiced the writer must be who doubts which of the two is preferable. Whatever respect Mr. Baretti may pretend to have for England, he hath offered it a great indignity by formally comparing the tyranny of Spain with our excellent constitution, and leaving the superiority of the latter undecided. Indeed it must be evident to any one who reads his travels with the least attention, that though compliments to this nation are sometimes extorted from him by truth and justice, those compliments are always annihilated by ungenerous reflections, derogatory to British fame.

From his eightieth to the end of his eighty-ninth letter, which concludes his journey from London to Genoa, he gives us an account of his passage over the Pyrenees, and of his journey along the extremity of Languedoc and Provence, eastward to Antibes. In these letters we accompany Mr. Baretti with pleasure; he describes the face of the country through which he travelled, and the manner of the inhabitants with perspicuity and strength.

He goes by sea from Antibes to Genoa; in this coasting voyage he relates many interesting occurrences, and paints many romantick scenes. His short account of the Italian coast from Ventimiglia to Genoa deserves to be copied here.

'The world cannot boast of a more delightful country than the Ligurian state. It consists of nothing along this coast, but of rocks and cliffs when viewed from the sea; but all so covered with incessant vegetation, as to be for ever green. I proposed to count the towns and villages from Ventimiglia down to Genoa, but soon lost my reckoning because of their number. The whole coast looks little less than a continued town, so many are the inhabitants along it. Beginning in particular at Porto Maurizio, and ending at Oneglia, the populousness is beyond belief, as within that space, which is only five miles in length, upon a breadth of four miles, there are no less than forty villages, besides those two towns.'

The places of which he takes most particular notice in this voyage, are, Nice, Monaco, St. Remo, and Savona.

The French are not much obliged to Mr. Baretti for the character which he gives of them in his eighty-fifth letter. He makes lying their distinguishing characteristic; and with a strange tenaciousness of singularity, he will not allow them to be a lively and chearful people. He says that the Spaniard has far more regard for truth than the Frenchman, and that he is likewise more volatile and gay. The former assertion will easily be granted to Mr. Baretti; the latter contradicts all observation. We must likewise remark, in justice to the French, that he seems to exaggerate in his account of their propensity to lying: some of the nations bordering upon France are as great liars as the inhabitants of that country.

But we must take notice of a more exceptionable passage in this letter.

Mr. Baretti desires his brothers, to whom he addresses these letters, not to imagine, because he charges the French with a habit of lying, that he has been tainted in England with the inveterate prejudice which is there universally entertained against them. We should be ignorant both of England and Piedmont if we suffered this apology to pass without criticism. It is well known that no nation has a greater antipathy against the French than Mr. Baretti's countrymen, the Piedmontese; he might have learned to hate France without coming into England. It is not true that England has universally a foolish antipathy against France. Those of the English who have had any advantages of education may be jealous of its policy and power; but they have not that foolish antipathy against a French-



Frenchman, of which Mr. Baretti accuses them; the Frenchman, considered in a private light, as one merely born and bred in France. They will shew him their hospitality as readily, and they will give him their esteem, if he deserves it, as willingly as to a person of another country.

Mr. Baretti went again to Madrid in 1768, and returned to England in 1769.—The Appendix, which he adds to his letters, contains the material remarks which he made in his second journies to and from Madrid by the Pyrenees. This Appendix will be very useful to travellers.—In it he traces his route from Perpignan to Madrid, from Madrid to Bayonne, and three different passages over the Pyrenes, by making a list of the places through which he passed, and giving their distances from each other. In this Appendix, too, he gives us more particulars concerning Biscay and Madrid. We shall extract his account of the structure of the Spanish theatres, and the taste in which they are frequented.

‘ The play-houses in Madrid have their peculiarity of disposition like those of England, France, and Italy. These are the parts of a Spanish play-house with regard to the spectators: El Patio, la Luneta, las Gradas, la Cazuela, la Tertulia, los Aposentos, and los Aloferos. I must explain you these terms.

‘ El Patio.] Thus they call the Pit, to which no female is admitted. It has no seats, and only the meaner people resort there.

‘ La Luneta.] ’Tis a close betwixt the Orchestra and the Patio, that contains two or three benches for gentlemen only.

‘ Las Gradas.] These are some ranges of steps, which run on the right and left of the Patio, amphitheatrically disposed. Gentlemen sit there as well as in the Luneta.

‘ La Cazuela.] ’Tis a kind of Gallery that fronts the stage, and the place allowed to ordinary women. No man is admitted there.

‘ The Tertulia.] ’Tis another gallery over the Cazuela. Both the Cazuela and the Tertulia have benches rising gradually backward. The Tertulia was once the place where the religious sat to see the Autos Sacramentales: but since the representing of them was prohibited, it is become a place for any body to sit in.

‘ Los Aposentos.] Thus they call the boxes, of which there are three ranges. The boxes that form the first range (and the second *salvo errore*) are called Aposentos principales, and are supposed to be occupied by people of rank. Each box is ample enough to contain eight or ten people. A box is commonly hired only for a night, and a company of ladies and gentlemen sit in it promiscuously.

‘ Los

‘Los Aloferos.] Thus they call the two corner-boxes on each side the stage, and adjoining to the Gradas. One of them is appropriated to an Alcalde de Corte, or officer of the police, who is present at the representation, to keep good order. The rank of that personage is one the most respectable, and so high, that the next promotion commonly raises him to the royal council of Castile, which is the great council of the state.

‘I have not much to say in commendation of this disposition of a play-house, as it does not offer a very brilliant coup-d’oeil. Besides that the Spaniards, like the Italians, are too sparing of lights for their pit and boxes, the Aposentos principales stand so very high over the Gradas, that a man must have very good eyes to distinguish the ladies’ faces from any part of the house. Nor must you expect any great satisfaction from looking at the women in the Cazuela, who keep their heads covered with their mantillas. Then he who is not used to the sight must be disgusted at the night-caps, which many a man in the Tertulia puts on during the performance, as it is not customary to keep one’s hat on in a play-house.

‘A Spanish audience never makes the least noise before the beginning of the play, as the English do, nor are orangewenches, or any body else permitted to stun the company with their hideous cries. The husbands, or the *cortejos*, take upon themselves the trouble of furnishing the ladies in their company with fruit and sweetmeats, of which they have generally a pocket full, and a servant is commonly kept without, or within the box, that they may send him to fetch *vin-friscos* when they are wanted.

‘The Spanish ladies, like those of Italy, receive visits in their boxes, and there converse in as loud a tone as they think proper, without fear of being checked by any arrogant voice bidding silence. The Spaniards are too polite ever to find fault with what the ladies are pleased to do. ’Tis needless to tell, that each division in a Spanish play house has its particular price. A small part of every play-house-revenue, is appropriated to the maintenance of some hospital.’

The following anecdotes are amusing, and strongly characterize the Spanish nation.

‘I have now said all I had to say of Madrid: yet before I quit it the second time, I beg leave to transcribe here out of my memorandum-book a few trifles and petty facts, which, collectively taken, may possibly assist more in forming a true idea of the Spanish nation, than more elaborate remarks and disquisitions.

‘A banker’s



\* A banker's lady told me, that she never masked, nor went to any public ball. Why, madam? "Because, said she, I know my own temper, and will not risk the affection I owe my husband." What would a light Frenchman have replied?

\* A young gentleman insisted on my placing myself by his sister in her coach, and would forcibly sit backwards. Why do you do so, said I in the usual strain of ceremony. "Because, said he, our religion orders us to be respectful to our superiors; and he is always my superior who knows more than I." I did not expect such a reply from a lad of eighteen, and of the highest quality.

\* As I was upon my departure from Madrid, a lady asked me which road I intended to take in my return home. Through Old Castile and Biscay said I. "Do you take Burgos in your way?" Yes, madam, because I want to see that celebrated cathedral. "You shall see what is still better," answered she. And what is it, madam? *El milagrosísimo Christo Santo*, replied the lady; meaning a wooden crucifix which is reckoned the most miraculous of any crucifix in Spain.

\* What are you a doing, said I to my landlady as I came to dinner. "I was reciting my rosary while waiting for your coming," said she.

\* A shoemaker brought me a pair of shoes some days later than he had promised; and as I reproached him with idleness in his business, he answered with great composure: *No me faltará una hora para morir*, "I shall always find time enough to die," meaning that it matters little how our time is suffered to elapse, since the diligent must die as well as the idle.

\* As a servant stood looking at a picture, I asked him whom it represented. *Santo Ydelfonso*, said he. Who was Santo Ydelfonso! "Chaplain to the Queen of Heaven." And did he say mass before her, as the king's chaplain before the king? "Who ever doubted that," replied the man very seriously.

\* A lady told me, that a Peruvian gentleman just come from his country, wanted to force a piece of money into her hand in her own house, by way of token of the pleasure she had given him with a song she had sung; and that he was so affronted at her refusing it, that he quitted her in a pet, telling the company in an angry tone as he was going, that the ladies of Lima are as rich of those of Madrid, yet have not the rudeness to refuse any pledge of admiration.

\* It is said, that, when a Spanish lady goes to pay the visit of condolence to her who has lost her husband or other near relation, she is received by the mourner in a room hung with black, and lighted only with one candle. Not a word is spoke by the visiter nor by the visited on such an occasion; but both

both keep wiping their eyes with their handkerchiefs every other moment for about an hour.

\* Many authors and editors have the custom in Spain to dedicate books to the Almighty, to his Angels, to his Saints, and even to those of their images that are in reputation of being miraculous. A volume of Calderon's *Autos Sacramentales* is by a printer dedicated to the Patriarca San Juan de Dios, though he was no Patriarch at all, but a bookseller at Grenada, as the dedicatory letter informs us, who in a fit of devotion threw into the fire all the books he had in his shop, those of piety only excepted. That San Juan (or St. John) was the founder of an order which professes ignorance. It was natural for a man who burnt his books, to think of forming such an institution.

\* When the edict was published in Madrid, that commanded every man to cock up his hat, the whole town was filled with murmurs and discontent. Many a stranger laughed then, and laughs still, at the Spaniards for their not submitting with pleasure to a more becoming fashion : yet we ought to consider how natural it is for mankind to hate innovations, even when they are for the better. Suppose that the French, or any other European nation, wearing cocked hats, were ordered to uncock them, do you think they would submit without reluctance ?

We shall now take the liberty to remind our readers of the recommendation which we gave this book towards the beginning of our first article upon it. There is no inconsistency in censuring some parts of a work which one recommends to the world. Unmixed praise is generally as ill-grounded as it is fulsome ; and totally to condemn often betrays more ill-nature than judgment. Mr. Baretti's book, considered as a description of countries, as a narrative of facts and occurrences, is extremely entertaining and instructive. He travels through parts of the world with which the English are less acquainted than might be expected ; and he presents the reader with a variety of new, and interesting objects. It must be owned, he is a poor moralist, and a worse politician ; and we have thought it in some degree incumbent upon us to confute his notions of government, lest they should make some impression upon superficial and inattentive minds. But his moral and political nostrums seldom occur, and they do not long retard the curiosity of the reader.



III. *A New Geographical, Historical, and Commercial Grammar; and Present State of the several Kingdoms of the World.* By William Guthrie, Esq. 8vo. 6s. J. Knox.

WERE we ever so much inclined to violate the good old rule *de mortuis nil nisi bonum*, yet we have the pleasing satisfaction to declare, that the work under our consideration intirely precludes us from indulging such a disposition. The author was a veteran in literature, and has given no small proof of his proficiency in the circle of science. We will, however, proceed in giving our readers some idea of this useful work, and shall point out wherein we think its excellency consists. In the language of painting, this work is done after the manner of Salmon, but the views are more extensive; the landships are better filled, and the whole is executed with infinitely greater variety.

The science of geography is certainly as pleasing and useful a study as any that can engage our attention. But those authors who have contented themselves with a general description of the terrestrial globe, without attending to any thing else, must naturally sink into oblivion, when works formed upon a more liberal plan made their appearance. The mind of man is not satisfied with the knowledge of the general division of the world, unless the specific differences which characterize the several parts of it are distinguished and developed. What can be more pleasing to the intelligent reader, than a comprehensive knowledge of the vast variety of the productions of nature, which are every where to be found? Or can there be a more rational entertainment than to have a perfect information of the manners of the several inhabitants on our globe? The religion and laws, government, and commercial interests, together with the nature of soil, and difference of climates, are all subjects suitable to our capacities, and worthy our attention. The inhabitants of the more civilized nations, by taking a view of the more barbarous, will find an agreeable contrast; they will soon see, and readily acknowledge, how much they are indebted to the culture of science, and the introduction of the liberal arts. By these means, the most flourishing kingdoms have arrived to the perfection in which we find them, and by such assistances we become as well acquainted with them, as if we had traversed every part, and conversed with every creature. In this view, the science of geography becomes interesting and important.

The author of the present work, in his Introduction, has given us an *epitome* of general history; and what we think of the

the utmost consequence to a proper knowledge of his subject, he has laid the foundation of it in astronomy; because 'the science of geography cannot be completely understood without considering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another, at a considerable distance from it.' Hence arises the great necessity and absolute propriety of beginning such a work as this with an account of astronomy, or of the heavenly bodies. With respect to the astronomical part, we will first give our author's words concerning the figure of the earth, which will convey some idea of the execution of the other parts of the work.

'Though, in speaking of the earth, says he along with the other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body; yet it has been discovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the *earth*, though nearly a sphere, or ball, is not perfectly so. This matter occasioned great dispute between the philosophers of the last age, among whom, Sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini a French astronomer, were the heads of two different parties: Sir Isaac demonstrated from mechanical principles, that the earth was an oblate sphere, or that it was flatted at the poles, or north and south points, and jutted out towards the equator; so that a line drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same center, and passing through the east and west points. The French philosopher asserted quite the contrary. But the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who sent out a company of philosophers towards the north pole, and likewise towards the equator, in order to measure a degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in these different parts; and from their report, the opinion of Sir Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has been always considered as more flat towards the poles, than towards the equator.'

From this short abstract, it will easily be seen, that the introduction to this work contains much scientific matter; and, indeed, such satisfaction has it afforded us in reading, and comparing it with works of a similar nature, that we shall select the doctrine of tides; on which subject, though no new solution is attempted to be offered, nor do we apprehend it possible, after the discoveries of a Newton and a Halley; yet the easy and natural method (which so eminently appears throughout this work) of communicating subjects seemingly of an abstruse nature, must greatly facilitate the knowledge of this science, and will amply justify us for the following quotation.

'By



\* By the tides, is meant that regular motion of the sea, according to which, it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obscurity till the immortal Sir Isaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonstrated that there is a principle in all bodies within the solar system, by which they mutually draw, or attract one another, in proportion to their distance, it follows, that those parts of the sea, which are immediately below the moon, must be drawn towards it; and consequently, wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the sea will be raised, which occasions the flowing of the tide there. A similar reason occasions the flowing of the tide, likewise, in those places where the moon is in the nadir, and which must be diametrically opposite to the former; for in the hemisphere farthest from the moon, the parts in the nadir being less attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate less towards the earth's center, and, consequently, must be higher than the rest. Those parts of the earth on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees distant from the zenith, or nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards those places to maintain the equilibrium; to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe. The tides are higher than ordinary twice every month, that is, about the times of new and full moon, and are called spring tides; for at these times, the actions of both the sun and moon are united, and draw in the same straight line, and, consequently, the sea must be more elevated: at the conjunction, or when the sun and moon are on the same side of the earth, they both conspire to raise the waters in the zenith, and consequently in the nadir; and at the opposition, or when the earth is between the sun and moon, while one occasions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the same. The tides are less than ordinary twice every month, about the first and last quarters of the moon, and are called neap tides; for in the quarters the sun raises the waters where the moon depresses them, and depresses where the moon raises them; so that the tides are only occasioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is nearest us, prevails

prevails over that of the sun. These things would happen uniformly, were the whole surface of the earth covered with water; but since there are a multitude of islands and continents, which interrupt the natural course of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the situation of shores, streights, and other objects, which have a share in producing them.'

This solution of the nature of tides, brings to our remembrance that extraordinary appearance which is so well known at Chepstow in Monmouthshire. We have somewhere seen, that the account which Sir Isaac Newton received of the vast perpendicular height to which the waters are raised in that part of the world, induced him to visit the spot, and receive the fullest demonstration. The observations which he made on the nature of the channel, and the vast variety of angles which are there formed, soon satisfied him of the certainty of the fact.

We have now done with the general contents of the work; we shall therefore proceed, and give some account of the general division of it.—The order which is observed seems to be more eligible than what has been pursued by other writers; and it is very observable, that the author had regard to the contiguity of the places which he describes: this is a circumstance which is attended with many agreeable consequences, and cannot escape the observation of any one.

We will venture, however, to trespass a little longer upon our readers, and give them one more extract.—It has been observed, that there is no part of the great world we are so little acquainted with as Spain; and as that kingdom has been the subject of a late publication, we think it necessary to quote the author's description of its antiquities and curiosities, in order to give our readers an opportunity of judging whether there be any striking difference between the two accounts.

'The former of these, he says, consist chiefly of Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley, between two hills, and is supported by a double row of a hundred and seventy arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terragona, Toledo, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. The Moorish antiquities, especially the palace of Granada, are magnificent and rich; the inside is overlaid with jasper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inscriptions; the



whole is executed in what we improperly call the Gothic taste, but it is really Saracen, though the Goths of Spain adopted it. Many other noble monuments erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain, some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

‘ Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, form a principal part, but we must not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is said to emerge.’

Here follows an account of the chief cities; and the description which is here given of Madrid, seems to correspond more properly with the first account which Barette has given us in his first visit to Spain, than with the second.

‘ Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. All its grandeur, which the Spaniards blazon with great pomp, does not prevent its being, according to the best accounts, a dirty uncomfortable place to live in, especially for strangers. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are always covered with snow. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for shew, conveniency being little considered; thus you will pass thro’ usually two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons, than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, beside having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not Catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor news-paper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city.

‘ The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial, and the natives say, perhaps, with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any palace in Europe. The Spaniards say, that this building, besides its palace, contains a church, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library; besides large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanics, noble walks, with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are two hundred, and they have an annual revenue of 12000 l. The mausoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it

is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the incredible sums bestowed on this palace, yet we hazard nothing in saying, that the fabric itself discovers a bad taste upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, in commemoration of St. Laurence—could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II.—

‘Cadiz is looked upon as the emporium of Spain.—Seville is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population.—Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites easily satisfied. The inferior orders, even in the greatest cities are miserably lodged, and their lodgings wretchedly furnished. The poorer sorts, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bedding with him, and if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he must even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform these offices to strangers.—

*This gives some idea of the straw bag mentioned by Baret.*

‘The pride, indolence, and laziness of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more industrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contrast distinguish the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard seldom stirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He sleeps, goes to mass, takes his evening walk. While the industrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domestic; he is butcher, cook, and tailor, all in the same family; he powders the hair, cuts the corns, wipes the shoes, and after making himself useful in a thousand different shapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.’

We do not apprehend that any further comments will be necessary to ascertain the merit of this compendious system of geography; but before we take leave of the article, we must observe, that there is annexed to the book, a very curious and accurate table of the present state of real and imaginary monies, which are in use, and known, throughout the world.

After all, we would not be understood to lessen the merit of former treatises on the same subject, particularly *Salmon's Grammar*, a work of which Mr. Guthrie has availed himself in many parts of the present performance.



IV. *The Gentleman's and Connoisseur's Dictionary of Painters. Containing a complete Collection; and Account, of the most distinguished Artists, who have flourished in the Art of Painting at Rome, Venice, Naples, Florence, and other Cities of Italy; in Holland, Flanders, England, Germany, or France; from the Year 1250, when the Art of Painting was revived by Cimabue, to the Year 1767; including about 500 Years, and the Number of Artists amounting to near 1400. Extracted from the most authentic Writers who have treated on the Subject of Painting, in Latin, Italian, Spanish, English, French, and Low Dutch, &c. By the Rev. M. Pilkington, A. M. Vicar of Donabate and Portraine, in the Diocese of Dublin. 4to. 1l. 4s. Cadell.*

FEW works have been extracted from so great a multiplicity of authors as this Dictionary. Mr. Pilkington, however, in his catalogue of authorities, has neglected to insert two books, which he seems to have made considerable use of, viz. *La Vie des Peintres Flamands, Allemands, & Hollandois*, par J. B. Descamps; and *L'Abregé de la Vie des Peintres*; both which have been lately published in France. It is true, indeed, he criticises very freely on these books in the body of his work; we hope not from the same motive that Voltaire is said to have criticised Shakespeare.—We shall here give a specimen of our author's manner from the Italian school.

#### ‘ANTONIO DA CORREGGIO.

Painted History. Died 1534, aged 40.

‘The true name of this illustrious painter was Antonio de Allegri; but he obtained the name of Correggio, from an inconsiderable town in the Modenese, where he was born in 1494. He was a disciple of Francesco Bianchi, called il Frari da Modena; but to nature alone was he indebted for every excellence he possessed. For, although he might have received some knowledge from his instructor, yet his manner had nothing that resembled, in any degree, that of Bianchi, or any other artist; nor had he either curiosity, or sufficient resolution to visit Rome, to examine and study the antiques, or to observe the productions of modern genius. By the admirable turn of his own mind, and taking nature for his director, he became one of the most pleasing painters, and most esteemed artists, that have appeared since the revival of the art; and has always been placed in the highest rank of merit, by all those who understand the art of painting, or are capable of judging of its excellencies.

‘He was peculiarly happy in a beautiful choice; in his carnations appears an inexpressible delicacy, united with the utmost force, and truth; and his touch is exquisite. It is impossible to see any thing more tender, more soft, or more round, than his figures, without the smallest harshness of outline, though his outline is not always correct. He was the first who brought the true art of foreshortening figures, to the utmost perfection, which he effected merely by the power of his own extensive genius; and by that art

he decorated the domes of churches, and the cieling of palaces, in a style that agreeably surprized every beholder, as well by its novelty, and beauty, as by its astonishing effect.

‘ He found out certain amiable and graceful airs for the heads of his madonna’s, saints, and boys, which distinguish him from all others, and render him not only superior to most, but inimitable. His thoughts were grand, and elevated; his pencil uncommonly tender, and delicate; he had the power of touching the passions, by the truth and elegant simplicity of his expressions; and, as to his colouring, it could not so justly be called a beautiful imitation of nature, as nature itself.

‘ In design, Correggio was not as excellent as in his colouring; but, notwithstanding any incorrectness in that respect, his perpetual elegance of taste in design, and the turn which he gives to his actions, must always command our admiration. He had a manner peculiar to himself, of distributing his lights with so great judgment, as to give an amazing relief and force to his figures: and this manner consisted in extending a large light, and then making it insensibly lose itself in the dark shadowings, which he placed out of the masses.

‘ But, although his powers were wonderful in many parts of his art, yet he had no great variety of graceful attitudes, nor did he groupe his figures with all that beauty, which might be expected from such an enlarged genius. But, he designed heads, hands, and feet, in a taste that was truly admirable; and finished his pictures with such neatness, purity of tints, and union of colour, that they appear as if they had been executed in one day.

‘ A late writer observes, that Correggio spoiled the natural tints sometimes, by using the red and blue too freely, and has now and then robbed things of their body by shading them too much, and melting them as it were, into one another. But, perhaps we ought to forgive Correggio every appearance of imperfection, on account of that unusual greatness of manner, that life and soul, which he has infused into all his figures.

‘ He painted with a sufficient body of colour, but highly wrought up; yet, without any distinguishable smart touches of his pencil; and every tint contributes to a general harmony. Many of his pictures are said to be painted on leaf gold, in order to give them a greater degree of mellowness, and lustre\*.

‘ The celebrated cupola, in the cathedral at Parma, executed by Correggio, has long been the admiration of all persons of taste, for the grandeur of the design, the warmth of imagination, and the boldness of the fore-shortenings, which are represented with all possible propriety, and possibility; but in a chamber belonging to that cathedral, may be seen one of the most lovely pictures painted by this great genius. The subject is the Virgin Mary, and the infant Jesus; Mary Magdalen is represented as kissing the feet of the infant, and St. Jerom is standing by. And it is justly remarked that, in that composition, the complexions of the child, the mother, the saint, and the Magdalen, are all varied, agreeable to their different ages, and characters. This picture is incomparably beautiful for the colouring, and the head of the Magdalen is one of his most perfect performances, in respect of the freshness, and

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\* We rather think that it was to prevent the rust of the copper, or the rosin of the wood, from injuring the picture.



loveliness of the tints. The heads, and the extremities of all the figures, are designed with inexpressible graces, though, in some particulars, the design is a little incorrect.

Two of his most capital pictures are a Leda, and a Venus, intended as a present from the duke of Parma, to the emperor; the figures are naked, and the flesh was so inimitably tender, clear, soft, and delicate, that it had more the appearance of real flesh, than the production of the pencil. In each picture there was a lovely landscape; but, in that of the Venus, two Cupids were introduced, as trying their arrows, of gold and lead, on a touchstone; and from a rock issued a stream of transparent water, which in its course, flowed over the feet of Venus, and seemed so perfectly lucid, that it rather increased the delicate softness of the flesh, than concealed any part of its beauties.

But in the palace at Modena was that remarkable painting, called the Notte, or Night of Correggio. The subject of it is the Nativity of Christ, in which the light proceeds from the infant, illuminating the shepherds and spectators, among whom, one figure of a woman is represented, as being so strongly affected by that ray of glory which issues from the babe, that she holds one hand between her face and the infant, to avert the dazzling brightness, with which she seems as if overpowered. Julio Romano, on seeing those pictures, declared they were superior to any thing in painting that he had yet beheld.

In reviewing this Dictionary it ought to be remarked, that the characters of the painters delineated in it, not having been drawn from natural taste, or personal observation on their works, but compiled entirely from different authors, who have varied in opinion, are not always just, or consistent. It may also be observed, that our author has given a very particular account of several Flemish painters, whose lives and works are equally uninteresting; while the lives and characters of some of the best Italian painters are passed over in a very cursory manner. But indeed, he every where betrays a strong predilection for the Flemish school, and is always officiously presenting us with Vander Hecks, and Vander Heydens. We shall insert, however, from that school, the life of Gerhard Douw, as Mr. Pilkington seems to have taken particular pains in his account of that artist.

#### GERHARD DOUW.

Painted Portraits, Conversations, and Subjects of Fancy. Died 1674, aged 61.

This admirable artist was born at Leyden, in 1613, and received his instructions in drawing, and design, from Bartholomew Dolendo, an engraver, and also from Peter Kouwhoorn, a painter on glass; but at the age of fifteen he became a disciple of Rembrandt. In that famous school he continued for three years, and then found himself qualified to study nature, the most unerring director.

From Rembrandt he learned the true principles of colouring, and obtained a complete knowledge of the chiaro-scuro; but to that knowledge he added a delicacy of pencil, and a patience in

working up his colours to the highest degree of neatness, superior to any other master. He therefore was more pleased with those pictures of Rembrandt, which were painted in his youth, than those by which he was distinguished in his more advanced age; because the first seemed finished with more care and attention, the latter with more boldness, freedom, and negligence, which was quite opposite to the taste of Douw. But, although his manner appears so different from that of his master, yet it was to Rembrandt alone that he owed all that excellence in colouring, by which he triumphed over all the artists of his own country.

His pictures usually are of a small size, with figures so exquisitely touched, so transparent, so wonderfully delicate, as to excite astonishment, as well as pleasure. He designed every object after nature, and with an exactness so singular, that each object appears as perfect as nature itself, in respect to colour, freshness, and force. His general manner of painting portraits was by the aid of a concave mirror, and sometimes by looking at the object through a frame with many exact squares of fine silk. But, the later custom is disused, as the eye of a good artist seems a more competent rule, though the use of the former is still practised by painters in miniature.

It is almost incredible, what vast sums have been given, and are given at this day, for the pictures of Douw, even in his own country: as also in Italy, and every polite part of Europe; for he was exceedingly curious in finishing them, and patiently assiduous beyond example. Of that patience Sandrart gives a strong proof, in a circumstance which he mentions relative to this artist. He says, that having once, in company with Bamboccio, visited Gerhard Douw, they could not forbear to admire the prodigious neatness of a picture, which he was then painting, in which they took particular notice of a broom; and expressing their surprize at the excessive neatness of the finishing that minute object, Douw told them, he should spend three days more in working on that broom, before he would account it intirely complete. In a family picture of Mrs. Spiering, the same author says, that the lady had sat five days for the finishing one of her hands, that leaned on an arm-chair. For that reason, not many would sit to him for their portraits, and he therefore indulged himself mostly in works of fancy, in which he could introduce objects of still life, and employ as much time on them as suited his own inclination. Houbraken testifies, that his great patron Mr. Spiering allowed him a thousand guilders a year, and paid beside whatever he demanded for his pictures, and purchased some of them for their weight in silver; but Sandrart, with more probability, assures us, that the thousand guilders a year were paid to Gerhard, on no other consideration, than that the artist should give his benefactor the option of every picture he painted, for which he was immediately to receive the utmost of his demand.

Douw appears, incontestably, to be the most wonderful in his finishing of all the Flemish masters. Every thing that came from his pencil is precious, and his colouring hath exactly the true and the lovely tints of nature; nor do his colours appear tortured, nor is their vigour lessened by his patient pencil; for, whatever pains he may have taken, there is no look of labour or stiffness; and his pictures are remarkable, not only for retaining their original lustre, but for having the same beautiful effect at a proper distance, as they have when brought to the nearest view.

‘ The



\* The most capital picture of this master in Holland was, not very long since, in the possession of the widow Van Hoek, at Amsterdam; it was of a size larger than usual, being three feet high, by two feet six inches broad, within the frame. In it two rooms are represented; in the first (where there appears a curious piece of tapestry, as a separation of the apartments) there is a pretty figure of a woman giving suck to a child; at her side is a cradle, and a table covered with tapestry, on which is placed a gilt lamp, and some pieces of still life. In the second apartment is a surgeon's shop, with a countryman undergoing an operation, and a woman standing by him with several utensils. The folding doors shew on one side, a study, and a man making a pen by candle-light, and on the other side, a school with boys writing, and sitting at different tables; which parts are lighted in a most agreeable, and surprising manner; every part, and every particular object, being expressed with so much beauty, truth, nature, and force, as is scarce to be comprehended. It was his peculiar talent, to shew in a small compass, more than other painters could express in a much larger extent.

\* I cannot forbear remarking, that, among a number of gentleman of fortune, who travel to Paris, and any part of Italy, there are some few who return without any real refinement of taste, to their own country; and being possessed with vanity, conceit, or affectation, bring back with them no more real knowledge of the art of painting, than they exported. Yet, in order to assume the appearance of that judgment and skill which they do not possess, their usual custom is to decry and depreciate, all the works of the Flemish painters; and to despise those particular excellencies in them, which are generally above their capacities to discern, and which the more judicious Italians readily acknowledge.

\* But, those imperfect connoisseurs would act more wisely if they observed, that persons of the finest taste in Italy, prize the best of the Flemish masters, according to their proportional merit; they do not rank them with their own countrymen, for elegance of taste, for beautiful forms, for grace, or true grandeur of design; but, they admire the best of the Flemings, for their sweetness of colouring, for the charming effect of their chiaro-scuro, for their delicacy of pencil, for their transparence, and their true imitation of nature, though it may not be nature in her most graceful appearance. And they ought also to observe, that many of the most elegant collections and cabinets in Italy, particularly the celebrated Florentine collection, are repositories for the works of some of the Flemish masters, such as Douw, Teniers, Hobbema, Mieris, Bercham, Vanderwerf, Ruysdal, Brueghel, Rubens, Vandyck, Rembrandt, Ostade, and others.

\* At Turin are several pictures by Gerhard Douw, wonderfully beautiful; especially one, of a doctor attending a sick woman, and surveying an urinal. The execution of that painting is astonishingly fine, and although the shadows appear a little too dark, the whole has an inexpressible effect. In the gallery at Florence there is a night-piece by candle-light, which is exquisitely finished; and in the same apartment, a mountebank attended by a number of figures, which it seems impossible either sufficiently to commend, or to describe.

We readily allow that the neatness of execution, which was so remarkable in this artist, entitled him to great notice, but

we cannot help wishing, that his genius for that quality had been more happily directed. Even the picture, which his panegyrist holds out for admiration, is an instance of a very bad taste. A pretty woman giving suck to a child.—A surgeon's shop, with a countryman undergoing an operation—A man making a pen by candle-light.—A school, with boys sitting at different tables.—These altogether must form such an incongruous jumble of figures, as no artist but a Dutchman would ever have represented on the same piece of canvas.

The numberless volumes, which have been written on the lives of painters, render a judicious compilation from them a very difficult undertaking. He only who is acquainted with the merits of their works, is qualified to reconcile the contrariety of opinions, delivered by authors concerning them: and as that is a species of knowledge, in which few are sufficiently conversant, small must be the number who are capable to give a good account of their lives and works. Mr. Pilkington seems, however, upon the whole, to have acquitted himself as well as could be expected from a person who is not an artist, and whose knowledge of the works of artists must have been chiefly derived from books: and this Dictionary is valuable, not only as being a treasury of facts and observations, extracted from scattered authorities, but also as being the first attempt towards an universal biography of the painters, in our language,

*V. The Ten Annual Accounts of the Collation of Hebrew MSS of the Old Testament; begun in 1760, and completed in 1769. By Benj. Kennicott, D. D. F. R. S. Doddsley. 2s. 6d.*

**I**N the year 1758, when the delegates of the press at Oxford requested the several professors to recommend to them such works, as they thought would be most acceptable to the public, and of which it would be most honourable for them to encourage the publication, the Hebrew professor recommended various particulars, the first of which was A Collation of all those Hebrew manuscripts of the Old Testament which were preserved in the Bodleian Library. For this purpose Dr. Kennicott was applied to by the delegates. And the late Dr. Secker, then bishop of Oxford, who had proposed such a collation to him the year before, now pressed it upon him so strongly, that he prevailed with him to enter upon it in 1760. Proposals were therefore published; and the work was encouraged by a very considerable number of respectable subscribers. Our learned collator for his own credit, in the discharge of his trust, and for the satisfaction of his patrons, at the end of every



every year, presented them with a printed account of the progress he had made in the said collations. But as most of these little pamphlets have been long since (in the booksellers phrase) *out of print*, the author was persuaded to republish, and prefix all his preceding annual accounts to that of the last year; that the reader may have a complete view of the advances which have been made every year, from the commencement to the conclusion of this important undertaking.

As this work will certainly be of very considerable service to sacred literature, our readers may not be displeased with the following extract from the last year's account, containing the several objections which have been made to Dr. Kennicott's scheme, and the Dr's. confutation of those objections.

' Case the First. About twenty years since I attempted a correction of some errors in the printed Hebrew text, by comparing two parallel chapters; in doing which, the only helps, besides the great advantages of that Parellelism, were the Context, and the Antient Versions. But here it was easy to object, that "a scheme of correction, formed upon these principles, would have been much more satisfactory, had there been any Hebrew MSS, which confirmed any of these emendations." The force of this objection is granted; and it was actually foreseen. MSS therefore were sought after, and found; by which several of these corrections, before made, were actually confirmed.

' Objection 2. But, "how could the Antient Versions support any alteration of the Hebrew Text?—when they are bad Paraphrases rather than good Versions: because none of their numerous and great differences from our Hebrew Text are at all countenanced by Hebrew MSS." Thus had men long affirmed, without the least proof; indeed, in a matter totally unexamined: and in defiance of the strongest proofs to the contrary, at that very time extant in the MSS themselves. For in those MSS, which I at first discovered, I soon met with several readings, entirely different from the printed Hebrew copies; and exactly agreeing with the Greek, Syriac, and other Antient Versions.

' 3. But, "as the MSS, thus discovered, were not many; perhaps these would have been contradicted, or invalidated, by other MSS in England, or by MSS in foreign countries." The very contrary was expected, as the result of further enquiry. Further enquiry was made, and other MSS were found at home; and upon enquiries also abroad, many MSS were found there likewise: almost every one of them proving the *fallibility* of its transcriber, and many of them confirming still more amply the authority of the Antient Versions.

' 4. But,

‘ 4. But, “ whatever be the condition of these MSS; yet are they, when taken all together, but very few, compared with the printed editions.” So far from these MSS being few, they amount to about 500. My first Dissertation specified 70, in our own country; where I have since discovered as many more. And if I should add about 90, which I have seen in France, together with those sent to me at Oxford from other foreign parts; the whole number, which I myself have seen, and in part examined, amounts to about 250—half the number of the whole, known at present in Europe. In the scale, opposite to all these MSS, are to be now put our modern printed editions; which, as they are almost all taken from the edition of Ben Chaim, in 1525, are reducible in point of authority nearly to that one edition. The oldest editions, which were printed on a very different plan (i. e. not from MSS the most perfectly Masoretical, which were the latest, but from MSS the least Masoretical) which were the oldest) are now very scarce and uncommon; and indeed these fall not within the force of this objection.

‘ 5. But, “ however numerous the MSS, now extant, may be, they are all late and modern; therefore not to be compared with those used by the Masoretic Doctors, above 1000 years ago; and from these MSS was our text taken.” MSS, of 600, 700 and 800 years of age, are certainly not modern; and to this antiquity may several of these MSS fairly pretend. A MS, not more than 600 years old, is of respectable antiquity; especially, when compared with one of 400 or 300: and it is from MSS of these later dates, that our common printed editions have been derived. The editions must agree with the MSS, from which they have been taken. The modern editions agree, and they agree only, with the latest and worst MSS; whereas the older the MSS are, the more they vary from the modern editions, and vary almost universally for the better.

‘ 6. But, “ as the Chaldee Paraphrase was taken from MSS near the time of Christ; and as that Paraphrase agrees with the modern Hebrew Bibles, in many of the places charged with late corruption: such places are certainly uncorrupted.” This objection, which has a plausible appearance at first, will immediately vanish, when it is observed, that the modern Chaldee Paraphrase is (for it has been proved from Chaldee MSS—see my Second Dissertation, pag. 177, &c.) wilfully altered, in several places, to make it agree with the modern Hebrew Text.

‘ 7. But, “ as the Samaritan Pentateuch is so notoriously corrupted, the Hebrew Text must be preferred, wherever it differs



differs from the Samaritan." There are indeed many gross errors in the Samaritan Pentateuch, as it is printed in the London Polyglott (an edition in general highly excellent and meritorious) but then the Samaritan MSS are free from, and will therefore correct, these errors. And indeed the Samaritan Pentateuch should, in my opinion, be held very precious; because I apprehend, that some places in the Hebrew Pentateuch will never be intelligible, nor others ever become defensible, till corrected agreeably to the Samaritan. And it is very material to observe, that the older even the Hebrew MSS are, the more they agree with the Samaritan. Of the Samaritan Pentateuch I have seen Twelve MSS: only Sixteen are now known in Europe; and, of these, Eight are collated for my Work already.

'8. But, "any fond hopes of great matters from Hebrew MSS must be ill-grounded: the trial has been made, and published; for 5 MSS, at Erfurt, were selected to adorn the Hebrew Bible printed by Michaelis, at Hall, in 1720; and the various readings, therein exhibited from these MSS, are so few, and these few so trifling, that it is a wonder how the collators could so weary themselves for very vanity!" This would indeed be a little discouraging, if it were really fact. But the truth is, that these MSS have been strangely misrepresented, in that edition; and that they contain important variations, which were not suffered to appear in that Bible. For the learned Editor, being *a devotee to the Masora*, published such variations only, as would not disgrace the Text Masoretically now established. The proof of this important article has been already mentioned, in pag. 86. But I cannot again mention this discovery, without celebrating that very ingenuous candour, and that ardent love of truth (superior to every Family consideration) which rendered my very learned friend Professor Michaelis, not only zealous to find out the real fact, but also ready to communicate it.

'9. But, "all these Hebrew MSS, now so pompously recommended, are spurious and full of faults; and were sold by Jews to Christians, because not worthy of admission into the synagogues."—So easy a thing it is, to affirm roundly, without the least shadow of proof! If indeed it be a crime to differ from the printed copies, in having readings more agreeable to the Context, more agreeable to the Antient Versions, and more agreeable to the New Testament; then must these MSS, especially the older of them, plead Guilty: otherwise, every such variation exalts their honour, and encreases our obligation. Some of these MSS were written by renowned rabbies; and others, for the use, or at the command, of their

their princes and great men. There is one, above 550 years old, written in the days of Rabbi Solomon Jarchi, and therefore probably by that famous rabbi himself, because it contains his Commentary; in which MS are many and valuable variations. And I have found many and valuable variations, in another MS; which did belong to a Synagogue, and to a Synagogue in Jerusalem itself; which was preserved there, as very precious and very venerable: but it now belongs to the magnificent library of His Majesty The King of Great Britain.

‘ 10. But, “as all the printed copies, in whatever part of the world printed, have very nearly, if not absolutely the same text; that text, thus uniformly established, must have been taken from MSS better, and more to be depended on, than those now produced with such very strange variations.” What is here supposed, or rather taken for granted, has lately been found, not only to be without foundation, but also to be the very reverse of the truth; because “some of the printed editions differ from others,” as much as the MSS do from the printed editions, and from one another. One only, which is the very first edition of the whole Hebrew Bible, printed in 1488, has more than 12000 variations from the text, as now commonly printed; very many of which variations greatly affect the sense

‘ Lastly. But, “as this one may be the only printed edition, which has many and great variations, it may have been taken from a very bad MS.” The peradventures, in this last objection, can prove nothing. And how feeble and vain are conjectures, when confronted by real facts! The edition of the Hagiographa, printed in 1487, and that of the whole Bible, printed in 1494, having also been collated for this work, are found to contain thousands of variations; many of which are of indisputable importance. And yet these two editions differ so much from each other, and from that of 1488, as to prove, that they were not printed from one another.

‘ In consequence of the discovery last mentioned, and of the several other discoveries specified in the articles preceding, it follows, with the force of demonstration—that “a careful collation of the best Hebrew MSS, and of the oldest printed editions, is The Method absolutely necessary to be taken, in order to the forming of a proper judgment, concerning the Hebrew text of the Old Testament.” And therefore, since we have now seen the various objections, attended with their several confutations; since we have been witnesses to the last breathings of a dying opinion, concerning the integrity of what is greatly corrupted; and since the absolute necessity of such a collation, as I have under-



undertaken is at last proved to universal satisfaction: I cannot but congratulate the public, on this collation being now completed.

If any one ask, what is to be now done with this collation of the Hebrew MSS? Dr. Kennicott replies——‘ In order to the forming of a proper answer to this question, it is necessary to consider——“ What this collation was to be, and what it is.”

‘ Let it then be recollected here, that the work engaged for was—to collate all the MSS of the Hebrew Bible, in our own country; and, during the progress of such collation at home, to procure the various readings of some of the best MSS abroad.

‘ Now the number of Hebrew MSS, preserved in our own kingdoms, which have been collated on this occasion, amounts to 140. The number of Foreign collations, received already, and likely to be received soon, amounts to 113. And the collations of the whole, or parts, of the printed Hebrew Bible, are 12. Consequently, the total of collations, for the benefit of this work, is 265: probably more, by above 100, than have as yet been made of any other antient book, even of the New Testament—though the Old Testament is nearly three times larger than the New; the verses in the former being 23185, and in the latter being only 7959. And it will not perhaps be forgotten, that notwithstanding this great difference in the size of these volumes of the Old and New Testament, and the still greater difference in collating the Greek MSS by whole words, and the Hebrew MSS by single letters; yet did the New Testament employ the very learned and very laborious Dr. Mill (here at Oxford likewise) not Ten years only, but Thirty.

‘ But, though the collation, thus undertaken, be now finished, there must be an interval of some years, before this work can be prepared for the press; and of some more years, before it can be published. During the last of these periods, it will not be easy to insert regularly any new collations; but during the first period, and especially in the earlier parts of it, it will be very practicable to add, and regularly to insert, all such collations as may hereafter arrive from abroad.

‘ If therefore it shall be thought adviseable, (as I have not the least doubt but it will) that this work should be prepared for the press; that is, that all the various readings, now contained in Two Hundred and Sixty-five distinct and separate parcels, should be selected, sorted, connected regularly, and disposed uniformly, in the most concise yet most intelligible and clear method, at one view, under the proper verse of every chapter through the Old Testament: while this extensive

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five operation shall be preparing and carrying on, there will be opportunity for inserting the various readings of other Foreign collations, especially all such as may arrive within the next Two Years.'

Among the collations not yet received, but soon expected, are, those of the following MSS, viz. 1. Nine MSS in the public library at Strasburg. 2. A valuable MS at Jena. 3. Four MSS at Nuremberg. 4. Several MSS at Paris. 5. A MS at Brieg in Silesia. 6. The oldest and best of the Hebrew MSS at Berlin. 7. A MS of the whole Hebrew Bible at Cologne. 8. The oldest and best of the MSS at Erfurt, three at Leipzig, and one at Dresden. 9. A MS of the Samaritan Pentateuch at Milan. 10. A MS of the Samaritan Pentateuch at Leyden. 11. A MS of great antiquity in the possession of Mr. Sampson Simson of New York. And lastly: that nothing might be left unattempted, where success was but barely possible, the indefatigable conductor of this great work has employed some of his friends to make proper enquiries after Hebrew MSS in Asia, near Madras, Aleppo, &c. and even among the Jews in the province of Ho-nan in China; and he has great hopes that these enquiries will produce some valuable acquisitions.

With respect to the pains which Dr. Kennicott himself has taken in this laborious work, he tells us, that during the past ten years, it has been his general rule, to devote to it 10 or 12 hours in a day, and frequently 14; till such severe application became no longer possible, through the injuries done to his constitution.

'But here, says he, it may be alledged, that, even admitting the truth of the preceding paragraph, yet, as the care taken by any one person, how great soever, is but the care taken by one; how can that one answer for the carefulness of others: of those, whom he has employed as his assistants, and whose parts of the work he cannot have entirely re-examined? My answer is this. The patrons of this work are too prudent to have expected what was plainly impossible. A work, which cannot be done by one man, must, if done at all, be done by more than one. And that collation, which could not be made by one man, could not be revised by one; because entirely to revise the whole is to examine each collation, as to every thing either noted or omitted: which certainly amounts to a recollation.

'All therefore, which could reasonably be expected, was—that the conductor of the work, thus necessarily assisted by others, should select the fittest and most careful among such as would submit to the employment; and direct, superintend,  
and



and in many particulars revise their several labours, as far as was practicable. No persons have been employed to collate MSS, who were not properly instructed, and well qualified to describe all the common variations: and the fixed rule has been, that every variation, which was uncommon and difficult, was marked for my own examination. In general; before a person was admitted to collate any MS, he was first of all exercised in transcribing collations before made; then was tried in collating part of a MS well collated before: and, when thus proved to be careful and exact, has been then entrusted with an uncollated MS, under the restriction specified in the preceding sentence. And, after all, that every degree of satisfaction may be given, to my own mind as well as to the minds of others; it is my fixed intention (if I live, and am sufficiently encouraged to prepare this work for the press) to re-examine, with my own eyes, all the MSS in England, in many of the most important passages: that so this work may appear with as much perfection, as my care can give to it.

By the foregoing account it appears, that tho' much has been done already, much still remains to be done, before this work can be prepared for the press: the selecting, connecting, adapting, transcribing, and re-transcribing such an infinity of materials will, if possible, exceed in fatigue even the past collation. This, it is evident, can never be executed without several assistants. Dr. Kennicott therefore humbly submits it to the greater and more illustrious among his patrons, upon what plan of *support* and *encouragement* he is now to proceed. The past subscription was formed in order to enable him to discharge the expence of the collation, as at first undertaken; and it has more than answered its original purpose, because it has enabled him to make that work more complete, by procuring the examinations of more MSS, than seemed possible at first.

The several subscriptions, which have appeared in the annual accounts for these ten years, amount to £. 9117 7s. 6d. But our learned and worthy collator has made it appear, to the satisfaction, we apprehend, of all unprejudiced persons, that the whole sum (excepting about £ 500, which will by no means discharge the expences of the collations yet expected) has been fairly and faithfully laid out in the accomplishment of this extensive undertaking.

As the disinterested friends of literature, we can only wish, that the learned and industrious collator may have health and fortitude sufficient to complete his design; and that he may be amply rewarded for his astonishing labours in completing a work so greatly subservient to the honour of revelation; a work sacred to the glory of God, and the good of mankind.

VI. *The Present State of the European Settlements on the Mississippi; with a Geographical Description of that River. Illustrated by Plans and Draughts. By Captain Philip Pittman.*  
6s. Nourse.

N E A R two thousand years ago the banks of the Rhine and Danube were in the same condition that the banks of the Mississippi are at present. Desert, uncultivated; the few inhabitants, wandering tribes of savage and barbarous nations, with here and there a post or small establishment of Romans. Some centuries hence, what the Banks of the Rhine and Danube now are, those of the Mississippi will in all probability be. A description of the former, written at that time by a Roman officer, would be accounted in these days a most curious remain of antiquity. It would afford the judicious reasoner an excellent opportunity of making observations on the wonderful alterations which time and the art and industry of man produce upon the face of nature. So, in the same manner, a few centuries hence, when those deserts, through which the Mississippi now runs, are become fully cultivated, and the seat of a mighty empire, the work now under our consideration will be accounted a precious and a curious relic.

This performance is written in a plain simple stile, and possesses all the internal and external marks of truth and authenticity. It is calculated to be particularly useful on one account, namely, to remove those prejudices which careless observers and ill-informed persons have conceived, and have been too assiduous as well as successful in propagating, about the province of West Florida, particularly with regard to its insalubrity. We shall here subjoin, as we conceive it must be of general use, what our author, captain Pittman, has observed as to this most important article; and he speaks from experience and observation on the spot, if not the only, certainly the best ground-works of knowledge.

‘ I am surprised that nobody has yet attempted to wipe off the unfavourable impressions that have taken place in the minds of many people, from the unjust reports made of the climate of West Florida, and which still retards the settling of that fine country. A regard for truth, and a desire to render service to that valuable province, the welfare of which has been obstructed by ignorance and misrepresentation, makes me take this occasion to shew the true causes of its supposed unhealthiness.

‘ Pensacola and Mobile have both proved fatal to our troops; the former from mismanagement. the latter from its situation.

When



When we took possession of Pensacola, in the latter end of the year 1763, it consisted of a fort and a few straggling houses; the fort was constructed of high stockades, enclosing in a very small space a house for the governor, and several miserable huts, built with pieces of bark, covered with the same materials, and most of them without floors; so that in the summer they were as hot as stoves, and the land engendered all sorts of vermin: in these wretched habitations the officers and soldiers dwelt.

After we had possession some time, the commandant, with a view of making the fortification more respectable, surrounded the fort with a ditch; which, in fact, could answer no other purpose, than holding a quantity of stagnated water to empoison the little air that could find its way into the garrison. The thirty first regiment of foot, which suffered remarkably from sickness and mortality in this place, was sent to it in the hottest part of the summer of 1765, unprovided with every thing necessary to preserve health in such a sudden change of climate. Brigadier-general Haldimand, in the beginning of 1767, immediately after his arrival here, caused the enceinte of the fort to be considerably extended, widened the streets, removed every thing that could obstruct a free circulation of air, and laid the place open to the sea, to give admission to the breezes. The ensuing summer was excessive hot, the thermometer having rose to one hundred and fourteen degrees; yet by the salutary precautions the general had taken, the troops were remarkably healthy, few fell sick, and scarce any died; although their lodgings, which of themselves may be supposed to be sufficient to destroy a good constitution, were little improved: from hence I presume that Pensacola is as healthy as any English settlement in the southern provinces of North America.

Mobile is situated on the banks of the river of that name, just at the place where the fresh and salt waters mix; when the tide goes out it leaves an abundance of small fishes on the marshes which lie opposite the town, and the heat of the sun in summer kills the fish; and the stench of them, of the stagnated water in the neighbouring swamps, and the slimy mud, render the air putrid. To this may be added, that the water of the wells is brackish, and there is none to be found wholesome within less than one mile and a half of the place. The twenty-first regiment of foot was sent to Mobile at the same time that the thirty-first regiment garrisoned Pensacola, and being equally unprovided with things necessary for troops newly arrived from Europe, and unseasoned to such a

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climate, suffered almost as much. I shall only add on this subject, which is a little distant from the true intent of my preface, that West Florida possesses the greatest advantage, as to its situation for commerce, and the communications to the different parts are rendered easy by fine navigable rivers, the banks of which are covered by a fresh luxuriant soil, capable of producing every thing natural to these climates.'

The foregoing quotation is from the Preface. The body of the work consists of descriptions of the different posts or settlements on the banks of the Mississippi.—These descriptions refuse all abridgement, being extremely concise, which their original intention required, being written for the use of the secretary of state. There is very little historical matter in it; there is, however, one article extremely curious and but little known, viz. an account of the manner in which the Spaniards took possession of the province of Louisiana, ceded to them by the court of France.

' Mons. D'Abbadie died in February 1765, since which the paper money issued by him has fallen twenty-five per cent. from its original value. On the death of Mons. D'Abbadie, Mons. Aubry, commandant of the troops, succeeded him as governor, and Mons. Foucault, *commissaire ordonnateur*, as intendant. These gentlemen continued to act in their respective stations, notwithstanding the cession of the colony to the crown of Spain in 1764. Don Antonio D'Ulloa arrived at New Orleans about the middle of the year 1766, but refused to take the government of the colony on him, until he should have a sufficient armed force to establish his authority. In the beginning of the year 1767 two hundred Spanish soldiers were sent from the Havanna; but these he did not think sufficient to enforce his commands in a country where the Spanish government was held in the utmost abhorrence and detestation; he sent about sixty of these troops to erect two forts, one opposite fort Bute, on the mouth of the Ibbeville, and the other on the west side of the Mississippi, opposite the Natches; the remainder were sent in the autumn of 1767 to build a fort at the mouth of the river Missouri; but the commandant was forbid to interfere with the civil government of their settlements in the Illinois country, where Mons. De Saint Ange continues to command with about twenty French soldiers. Don Antonio D'Ulloa, who had already carried a high hand over the inhabitants, received some orders from his court, by which the commerce of the colony was greatly restricted, and which were so disagreeable to the colonists, that they revolted from the dominion of the crown of Spain; and the council, by an edict, inserted at the end of this work, obliged him and the principal Spanish officers to leave the province in November 1768, notwithstanding Mr. Aubry's remonstrances and the protest he made against the edict of the council.

' Mons. de Sacier, one of the council, with two other gentlemen of the colony, was sent to France with this edict, and to implore the protection of the king; they were imprisoned on their arrival, and have never been heard of since.

' During



During six months, which elapsed before news could be received from Europe, the unhappy colonists vainly flattered themselves with hopes of being justified for the steps they had taken by the court of France. On the 23d of July, 1769, news was brought to New Orleans of the arrival of general O'Reily at the Balize, with eighteen transports, followed by ten more from the Havanna, having four thousand five hundred troops on board, and loaded with stores and ammunition. This intelligence threw the town into the greatest consternation and perplexity, as, but a few days before, letters had arrived from Europe signifying that the colony was restored to France.

In the general distraction that took place, the inhabitants of the town and the adjacent plantations determined to oppose the landing of the Spaniards, and sent couriers requiring the Germans and Accadian neutrals to join them. On the 24th an express arrived from general O'Reily, which was read by Monsr. Aubry, to the people in church; by this they were informed that he was sent by his catholic majesty to take possession of the colony, but not to distress the inhabitants; and that when he should be in possession he would publish the remaining part of the orders he had in charge from the king his master; and should any attempt be made to oppose his landing, he was resolved not to depart until he could put his majesty's commands in execution.

The people, dissatisfied with this ambiguous message, came to a resolution of sending three deputies to Mr. O'Reily, viz. Messrs. Grandmaison, town-major, La Friniere, attorney-general, and De Mazant, formerly captain in the colony's troops and a man of very considerable property; these gentlemen acquainted him, that the inhabitants had come to a resolution of abandoning the province, and demanded no other favour than that he would grant them two years to remove themselves and effects. The general received the deputies with great politeness, but did not enter into the merits of their embassy, farther than assuring them that he would comply with every reasonable request of the colonists; that he had the interest of their country much at heart, and nothing on his part should be wanting to promote it; that all past transactions should be buried in oblivion, and all who had offended should be forgiven: to this he added every thing that he imagined could flatter the expectations of the people. On the 1st of August the deputies returned, and made public the kind reception the general had given them, and the fair promises he had made. The minds of the people were now greatly tranquilized, and those who had before determined suddenly to quit their plantations now resolved to remain until their crops were off the ground.

During the absence of the deputies, several of the principal inhabitants applied to captain-lieutenant Campbell, late of the thirty-fourth regiment, then at New Orleans, to acquaint the governor of West Florida that they were desirous of becoming British subjects, and to beg that he would send a proper person to tender them the oath of allegiance, and to distribute the lands, on the banks of the river betwixt the Ibbeville and Natches, for them to settle on, and that they were to be joined by near two thirds of the French inhabitants, and by German and Accadian families, of which six hundred men were capable of bearing arms. These would have proved a valuable acquisition to the province of West Florida, and it is rather unfortunate that at this time there were no troops in the forts of Natches and Ibbeville to give them protection.

‘ On the 16th of August general O'Reily arrived at New Orleans with one frigate and twenty-two transports, and came on shore the day following to reconnoitre the ground for disembarking, and the grand parade for drawing up his troops; he was attended by Mons. Aubry and the staff of the garrison; he returned on board soon after, and was saluted by the frigate and the garrison. Orders were given for the troops to disembark on the 18th, at four o'clock in the morning, by firing one gun from the frigate; stages being previously made to reach from the shore to the sides of the ships for the soldiers to pass over.

‘ On a signal being given all the troops began to move, and in less than ten minutes were formed on the bank of the river, and from thence marched to the grand parade, where they formed the square. The ships were dressed with the colours of different nations, and the shrouds and yards crowded with sailors. On the general's going on shore he was saluted by the frigate, and received four cheers from the sailors; and on his coming on the parade there was a general discharge of cannon and small arms from the garrison and militia, attended with music and drums. Don Alex. O'Reily and Mons. Aubry, with their attendants, followed by a croud of inhabitants, went to that angle of the parade where the flag-staff stood. Mons. Aubry, as governor, opened his orders from his most christian majesty, to deliver up the town and island of New Orleans, and province of Louisiana, to Don Alex. O'Reily, in the name of his catholic majesty; and expressed his happiness and satisfaction in being succeeded in the command of that country by a man of his humanity and worth; to which general O'Reily answered, “ I shall make it the rule of my future conduct in government, to imitate those wise and prudent maxims in administering justice by which you have gained the hearts of the people, even at the most critical juncture.” The Spanish colours were now hoisted, and honoured by another general discharge of artillery and small arms from the garrison; his excellency and attendants went to church, and sung Te Deum, whilst the guards were relieving: after church was over, the parade was dismissed, and the soldiers went to the barracks appointed for them. On the 19th of August the town militia was reviewed: from this day the time was passed in receiving and making visits until the 25th in the morning, when the inhabitants went to pay their respects to their new governor; as they entered the hall, he desired them to place themselves singly round the room, and holding a paper in his hand, containing the names of the persons principally concerned in the late insurrection, such as were present he begged to walk into the next room, where an officer and guard attended to take them into custody, such as were absent he sent for, to the number of thirteen, and confined them in separate apartments, some on board ship, others to guards and common prisons, where they were detained to take their trials for high treason; their slaves and other effects were seized in the king's name. On the 27th a proclamation was published, ordering the inhabitants to take the oaths of allegiance; and an amnesty to all concerned in the late revolt, except those already in custody; and another was published prohibiting negroes from monopolizing provisions coming to market, or buying or selling without a written leave from their masters. Shortly after, other orders were given out, by which all the English subjects, protestants, and Jews of every nation, were enjoined to depart from the province of Louisiana, and all commerce prohibited, except with Old Spain  
and



and her islands, and neither of these having demand for the produce of Louisiana and their returns, if any trade should take place, could not be employed in the commerce of the Mississippi.

General O'Reily made great professions of friendship to the governor of West Florida, and assured him, upon every occasion, of his wishes to live in harmony with his English neighbours. His words and actions widely differed; he endeavoured to tamper with the Indians settled on our territories, and behaved with great inhospitality towards all English subjects who had occasion to go up the river Mississippi, and infringed the articles of peace by sending a party of soldiers to cut the hawsers of an English vessel, called the *Sea Flower*, that had made fast to the bank of the river above the town; the order was obeyed, and the vessel narrowly escaped being lost. It is impossible for vessels to navigate upon the Mississippi, unless they are permitted to make fast to the shore, as has been explained in the foregoing part of this work; and if English vessels are prevented, they cannot be said to enjoy the free navigation of the river, conformable to the articles of the last peace.

In October, great and solemn preparations were made for the trial of the prisoners charged with high treason, who continued to undergo a cruel and rigorous imprisonment until the 31st of this month. When they were brought before the high court of justice, as it was called, (it was more properly a court martial, the general himself presiding, and the other members being mostly Spanish officers) all the prisoners were found guilty of the charge exhibited against them; five were sentenced to be shot, and seven to be confined for ten years to the Moro castle at the Havanna. Those condemned to death were executed the day following, their names, Mons. La Friniere, king's attorney; Mons. De Marquis, formerly commandant of the Swiss companies at New Orleans, and knight of the order of St. Louis; Mons. De Noyant, captain of dragoons, son of the late king's lieutenant of Louisiana; Pierre Careffe and Petit, merchants. The names of those banished to the Moro, Mons. De Mazant, formerly captain in the colony troops; Mons. Garic, register of the council; Messrs. Douffet, Millet, sen. and jun. and Poupet, merchants.

Mons. Foucault, the intendant, was sent prisoner to France. Mons. Villeroy, one of the persons first arrested, had embarked with his slaves and most valuable effects, designing to throw himself under the protection of the English; but being afterwards persuaded of the sincerity of the Spanish general's promises, he landed with his slaves and effects, and returned to his plantation: he was so enraged at the treachery that had been used towards him, and at the cruel treatment he received when in confinement, that he died raving mad. The fate of Mons. La Friniere's daughter and only child is particularly lamentable; this young lady was married but some months before this dreadful event to Mons. De Noyant, who was handsome in his person, and amiable in his disposition.

It is impossible to reflect on this tragedy but with horror and detestation. When fraud or treachery are made use of to destroy an enemy, or punish the guilty, it disgraces a nation and the name of justice.

It is remarkable, that the king of Spain, in his acceptance of Louisiana, promises the inhabitants their original form of government, and to continue the French counsellors in his council: he also offers to receive all the troops employed by the king of France in that country into his service; but the soldiers finding that they were

to receive no more pay than they had formerly been allowed, which is considerably less than the pay of Spanish troops, refused entering into that service to a man.

From this tragical relation it will sufficiently appear, what a difference there is between the British government and that of their rival states, and between the situation of those Frenchmen who in consequence of the late war have become British, and those who in consequence of that cession have become Spanish subjects. How preferable is the condition of the former, and how happy ought they to think themselves.

The rest of this performance contains a short account of the several small settlements on the east and west banks of the river, particularly of New Orleans. These, considering the immense tract which they occupy, are extremely few in number.—Our author likewise relates several very curious particulars with respect to this renowned stream: first, that though, like many other great rivers, it annually overflows its banks; yet it is the only one which never receives any of those waters back into its channel, owing to the peculiar construction of its banks, which are every where higher than the adjacent grounds. Though so extremely muddy as to deposite in a short time, in a small tumbler, two inches deep of slime, yet its waters are remarkably wholesome, and are drank taken fresh out of the river by rowers and other people when in the highest state of perspiration, without the least prejudice to their health.

This work is enriched with curious and accurate draughts taken by the author on the spot. The first is a plan of New Orleans. The next is a draught of the river Ibbeville, being the boundary till it runs into the Mississippi between the English and Spanish territories. The third is a plan of the settlement of Cascaskies. The three following are draughts of the Mississippi from the Balize near its mouth to Fort Chartres in the Illinois country, the most distant post in possession of the English. The seventh is a plan of the town of Mobile, the second city in West Florida.

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VII. *A Free Address to Protestant Dissenters, on the Subject of Church Discipline, &c.* By Joseph Priestly, LL. D. F. R. S. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

THE author, in his preliminary discourse, takes notice of some of the false and unworthy notions of God, of his moral government, and of the whole Christian scheme, which gradually crept into the church, and debased the spirit and temper of Christianity. Though he acknowledges, that by the labours of many courageous and excellent men, some of the grosser



grosser corruptions of the Christian doctrine and discipline have been happily rectified, and the spirit of Christianity has been improved in consequence of it. Yet he thinks, that much still remains to be done, especially with respect to the doctrines which are generally distinguished by the term Calvinistical, which, he says, entirely disfigure the Christian scheme, debase its spirit, make thousands of unbelievers in Christian countries, and effectually prevent the general reception of our religion among Jews, Mahometans, and heathens.

In the beginning of this Address he tells us, that there is hardly the face of any thing that can be called *discipline* among the Dissenters, especially those who are generally denominated rational Dissenters; and that the effects of this deficiency are very conspicuous. He therefore exhorts them, after having rejected what has proved to be tyrannical and mischievous in church authority, to resume what may appear to be consistent with Christian liberty, to promote a Christian temper, and lead to good morals.

This work is divided into several sections. In the first he gives a view of the outlines of the ancient church discipline, and the general effects of it. In the second he endeavours to trace out the corruptions of it.

Among those corruptions he reckons the exaltation of the presbyters or elders, and of the deacons also, into the rank of single bishops, in churches; ecclesiastical animadversions upon particular *opinions*; the annexing of *civil penalties* to the sentence of excommunication; the injunction of a variety of ridiculous *penances*, as walking barefoot, repeating a certain number of pater-nosters, and ave-marias, pilgrimages, &c. and especially the commutation of those for sums of money. In consequence of which, he observes, religion became a mere trade, and was a fund of vast wealth to the priests and the court of Rome, who spent the sums they extorted from the superstition of the people in the most abominable excesses.

In the third section he gives a particular account of the very low state of church discipline among the rational Dissenters; and shews, that in consequence of this neglect, the original ends of a Christian society are very imperfectly answered.

In the fourth he endeavours to trace out the causes which have contributed to bring church discipline into its present low estate.

In the fifth he exhibits a view of the progress and present estimation of preaching, which, he says, is become almost the sole object of their assemblies.

In the sixth he has given us a delineation of a method of church government, the heads of which are as follow. All the members of the society are to meet and make choice of a proper person to officiate among them as a public instructor.—Being provided with a minister, corresponding to the office of a bishop in the primitive times, the society in the next place, is to chuse a number of the more elderly, grave, and serious persons, and withal, if possible, the more wealthy of their own members, to bear the title and office of *elders*. The choice is to be made by lot or ballot, and not fewer to be appointed than ten or twenty in a society of three or four hundred. These elders with the minister at their head (but with no more power than any other of them) are to form a *consistory*, and to meet about once a month to consult together concerning the state of the church, and the best method of promoting its real interests.

With respect to their office and the method of regulating the society, our author proceeds in this manner:

Let it be the business of every elder to admonish all the members of the society that live within his district or neighbourhood, of every irregularity, or tendency to it, with prudence and discretion; taking the opinion of his brethren, or of the minister, in difficult cases; let notorious offenders only, and those who have rejected the repeated admonitions of one or more, be proposed to the whole society for public censure; and when a person incurs the last sentence, excommunication, let him not, however, as in the primitive times, be excluded from the benefit of public worship, but let some other method be taken of letting it be known, that he is no member of the society. For this, and other purposes, let a register be kept of all public proceedings. In very difficult cases, let the minister and elders of one church consult with the minister and elders of other churches, and give one another mutual advice.

I should think it advisable, that every member of the society should formally give in his name as such, that it be entered in the public register, and that this act be considered by the rest as an admission to communion with them in the celebration of the Lord's supper, and also as a promise on his side, that he will communicate, provided he really believe the rite to be an institution of Christ. But let not this, or any other opinion exclude a person from the benefit of the society, if he be a believer in the Christian religion, and profess obedience to it, as far as he understands it; and let not any persons, though they be no Christians, be at all discouraged



excluded from attending any religious exercises of the society, as often as they please.

‘ If it should happen that the minister be absent on a Lord’s-day, and no other person, equally qualified, can be conveniently procured to officiate in his place; and if it be thought that the society would suffer by being dispersed, let one or more of the elders supply his place, by reading the scriptures, and distinctly pronouncing prayers and discourses, generally approved.

‘ I would advise, that, the elders and deacons of a church make use of the compositions of others, whenever they do any part of the ministerial duty. It is barely possible that persons who have had no liberal education, should acquit themselves with propriety and decency, either in prayer or preaching, without that assistance. It is very possible, indeed, that, in their attempts at *extempore* prayer, or preaching, they may please themselves, and some of the more ignorant of the people; but that success is very apt to fill them with vanity and self-conceit, for want of that just view of things, and that knowledge of themselves, which it is hardly possible to acquire, without more reading, thinking, and conversing with the world, than generally falls to the share of the private members of Christian societies. In this case, it is almost always found, that the ignorant and conceited are the most forward, while the truly modest, and best qualified, are the most backward to shew their talents in public; and many are the mischiefs that I have known this custom to have produced in societies.

‘ There will be a particular propriety in the elders visiting the sick and afflicted, as they will generally be their neighbours, and persons to whom they will be able to unburden their minds, with more freedom than they can to a minister.

‘ As to the necessary civil offices of the society, such as making collections, distributing the bread and wine, &c. I imagine that persons of an age inferior to that of elders, will be the most proper to discharge them. Let them, however, be young men of sobriety and good character, bearing the title of deacons, and let this office be considered as a rank in the church preparatory to that of elder.

‘ In general, let no elder be under thirty, or perhaps forty, and no deacon under twenty years of age.

‘ Let both the elders and deacons be ordained to their office by the prayers of the congregation; and, if it be convenient, let the ministers of other societies be invited to attend and assist.

‘ Lastly,

' Lastly, let this new formed society imitate the primitive Christians, and modern Quakers, in attending to the temporal welfare of the members of the society; particularly in encouraging industry, discountenancing idleness and profligacy, and effectually relieving the industrious and helpless poor: for this purpose let collections be made, as in the primitive times, and among the modern Methodists, much more frequently than is usually among us; for by this means greater sums are raised with less difficulty. If it be thought proper, let an institution of later ages be adopted, and stewards of the public funds be appointed, who, in their general rules of distribution, shall be governed by the votes of the people.

' Such, my brethren, is the constitution, order, and discipline, that I could wish, but despair ever to see established in Christian churches. Were I a member of such a church, I should rejoice in its privileges, and I should dread its censures.'

As many objections, no doubt, might be made to this scheme of church discipline, our author considers such as he thinks of any weight, and more distinctly points out some of the advantages which he supposes would attend it.

The concluding section contains some additional considerations, as *motives* to the establishment of ecclesiastical discipline.

VIII. Leonidas. *A Poem. 2 Vols. 8vo. 6s. Cadell.*

AS the author of this excellent poem hath made considerable additions to it, and improved it in this fifth edition; and as it hath not been read so much as it deserved, since its novelty was worn out, we may, without impropriety, give it our particular attention.

If in this criticism any sentiments, or expressions should come from us, which may seem derogatory to the character of Homer, we here offer a precaution, to guard them against misinterpretation.

The best criterions of productions in the fine arts, are the genuine feelings, and the improved taste of mankind; not early examples, and dogmatical laws. Liberal scholars judge of Homer himself by the former tests; while mechanical pedants estimate him by the latter. Yet we should be loth to show irreverence to the fame of the father of poetry. We are ready to allow, what it would be impertinence in us to deny, that Homer's greatness has never been excelled; that to be possessed of it in the age in which he lived was astonishing, and convinces us, that in whatever period he had flourished, he would have been the first of his cotemporary poets; and that

his



his faults, or rather his excrescences, and luxuriance, are not to be imputed to his penetrating and comprehensive mind, but to the rudeness of his times. It is weak and ridiculous to commend, or imitate, a sentiment or simile, merely because it was written by Homer: but it is equally weak and absurd, to incur the literary infamy of Perrault, by endeavouring to persuade the world that Homer was but an ordinary man; and that the emotions which the reading of his poems have raised for three thousand years, have been excited without a cause.

After this preliminary homage to the reputation of Homer, if in the sequel of this article we venture to discriminate between what is inconsiderately admired, and what deserves to be admired, we shall not fear the imputation of temerity and presumption.

The subject of Mr. Glover's poem is the famous expedition of Leonidas to the straits of Thermopylæ, to oppose the entrance of the numerous armies of Xerxes, by that passage into Greece. When the Asiatic monarch was making warlike preparations against Greece, the Lacedæmonians sent messengers to the oracle of Delphi to inquire the event of the war. The answer of the oracle was, that unless a king descended from Hercules should die, Lacedæmon would be destroyed. Leonidas, a king of Sparta, and a descendant of Hercules, on hearing this decree of the gods, offered, without hesitation, to die for his country. He marches forth at the head of three hundred of the choice troops of Sparta; in his way to Thermopylæ, he is joined by forces from the different countries of Greece; and, on his arrival there, his army amounted to about eighteen thousand men. With this number, he is to check the irruption of at least two millions of Persians. In the repeated engagements betwixt the two armies, the Barbarians are repulsed with great slaughter. The Greeks, however, with many obstinate encounters, and prodigies of valour, are at length much diminished. The small remaining number, with Leonidas at their head, make their last stand for Greece, and sacrifice their lives to liberty. They sink down in honourable death, overwhelmed with multitudes, and exhausted by the efforts of their own courage. Leonidas falls the last of the Grecian commanders, not the victim of one arm, but expiring by the wounds of many.

This is the ground-work of this beautiful and animated poem. The genius of Mr. Glover is adequate to his noble subject. The preparatives to this famous expedition, the domestic scenes which might be supposed to precede it, are justly imagined, and elegantly and pathetically described. His au-

gust

gust hero is strikingly characterized, and distinguished: we are interested in every word that he speaks, in every motion of his majestick frame. Our minds accompany him attentively from the beginning of his march to his glorious death at Thermopylæ. The portraits of his other heroes, and of the principal officers in Xerxes's army, are artfully, and strongly diversified. It is not without foundation objected to Virgil, that his warriors are not different enough from one another. But this objection cannot be made to Mr. Glover; he excels in marking his characters with distinguishing peculiarities. We have not here the *fortemque Gyan, fortemque Cloantibus*;—but the sage Dieneces, and the hospitable Oileus; Diomedon exhibits to us the rough, honest, and intrepid soldier; the courage of his friend Dithyrambus is softened, and adorned with elegance of manners, with a taste for poetry, and talents for the arts. In Menalippus, the poet delineates a youth who claims our love, and our esteem: his mind is ingenuous, and susceptible; he is ardent for military glory, yet modest, and obedient to the advice of experience and age. In Xerxes, and his attendants, the sultan and the slave are painted in natural and lively colours; and in their conferences, the principles and prejudices of despotical government are forcibly represented. The character of Artemisia, queen of the Carians, is singular and picturesque: she unites the valour and activity of the soldier with the dignity of the queen; an admiration of Greek heroism with fidelity to the Persian monarch. Hyperanthes is a prominent character among the stupid and servile Asiatics; the intrepidity, the generosity, the tenderness of his nature, extort our admiration of him, and make us regret that he is fighting in so bad a cause.

We are not in this poem made acquainted with warlike dispositions and operations, by tedious enumeration and trite description. When the Spartan phalanx moves, we too are put in motion by the imagery of the poet. We see the ardour of their eyes, and feel their throb for glory. Mr. Glover, remarkably displays the elegance of his imagination in some parts of his work, in which he imitates, and improves upon Homer, and which it required uncommon art and talents to render agreeable and entertaining. His catalogue of Xerxes's forces is adorned with fine painting; and the several nations are distinguished by short, but beautiful descriptions of their arms, their country, and their manners. His survey of the Persian army is certainly more entertaining than Homer's catalogue of the Grecian ships; an unideal list of proper names, which could only be interesting to his countrymen, as it might help to ascertain their geography.

Mr,



Mr. Glover, too, when he enumerates the killed and wounded, intersperses the detail with affecting imagery more than Homer. When a warrior is slain in Leonidas, the poet generally informs us of some important circumstance of his history. Of this information, Homer is very sparing: though he is very minute in relating the various wounds by which his heroes are sent to the Stygian shades. His account of slaughter may be amusing to anatomists, but they are disagreeable and painful to a reader who is merely a man of imagination and taste.

Let not an invidious and malignant critic tax us with rashness and presumption, for comparing some parts of the *Iliad* and of Leonidas. Excellence in writing is not confined to the Greek language, nor to the page of Homer.

Mr. Glover has made a most happy choice of a general subject, and of a hero. The defence of Greece at Thermopylæ is one of the most memorable events, and Leonidas one of the most illustrious characters in history. The brutal wrath of the son of Peleus, and its effects, cannot come in competition with those noble objects. Nor is our attention so much attracted by the piety of Æneas, and the founding of a colony, as by them.

The judgment likewise of the epic poet deserves to be highly praised, when he chuses a subject likely to captivate the affections of the nation to which his work is principally addressed. The exploits of Leonidas, and his countrymen, for the cause of liberty, though admired by Europe, are certainly with peculiar propriety held forth to the view of England, the freest country in the world.

We must not forget to take notice of the episodes in Leonidas, which are extremely beautiful and sentimental, full of fine description, and elevated morality.

This poem contains a great variety of similes, not one of which, perhaps, is exceptionable. They are pertinent to the objects to which they are applied, and they are painted with flowing colours, and warm expression.

The versification of Leonidas is harmonious; but it is to be wished, that its harmony had been more varied. A writer of an epic poem should particularly endeavour to acquire a wide compass of poetical modulation. For the tedium, which the reading of ten or twenty thousand metrical lines is apt to bring upon a reader, seems to be one of the causes why that species of composition is extremely difficult.

The speeches in Leonidas have great merit; they are not too prolix; we never wish to be at the end of them; they are characteristick of the speakers; they kindle in the heart of him who reads them the flame of patriotism and virtue.

It will be proper to exemplify from the poem some of its principal beauties in confirmation of our praise.

Leonidas, when he is about to march from Sparta, goes to take leave of his queen. The whole interview betwixt them is extremely pathetic. After he has consoled her in the language of a husband and a hero, the poet paints the following tender domestic scene.

' Here paus'd the patriot. In religious awe  
Grief heard the voice of virtue. No complaint  
The solemn silence broke. Tears ceas'd to flow ;  
Ceas'd for a moment soon again to stream.  
Behold, in arms before the palace drawn,  
His brave companions of the war demand  
Their leader's presence. Then her griefs renew'd,  
Surpassing utterance, intercept her sighs.  
Each accent freezes on her falt'ring tongue.  
In speechless anguish on the hero's breast  
She sinks. On ev'ry side his children press,  
Hang on his knees, and kiss his honor'd hand.  
His soul no longer struggles to confine  
Her agitation. Down the hero's cheek,  
Down flows the manly sorrow. Great in woe  
Amid his children, who inclose him round,  
He stands, indulging tenderness and love  
In graceful tears, when thus with lifted eyes,  
Address'd to heav'n. Thou ever-living pow'r,  
Look down propitious, sire of gods and men !  
O to this faithful woman, whose desert  
May claim thy favor, grant the hours of peace !  
And thou, my bright forefather, seed of Jove,  
O Hercules, neglect not these thy race !  
But since that spirit, I from thee derive,  
Transports me from them to resistless fate,  
Be thou their guardian ! Teach them like thyself  
By glorious labours to embellish life,  
And from their father let them learn to die.'

In the sixth book, the Grecian commander, fatigued with pursuing the Persians, retires for refreshment to a cave in the side of mount Oeta. Dithyrambus, discovering a passage through it, ascends to the temple of the Muses. We are sorry we have not room to give our readers his interview with the priestess, as a specimen of Mr. Glover's powers in descriptive poetry.

The beautiful episode of Teribazus and Ariana, makes part of the eighth, ninth, and tenth books of this poem. Ariana was sister to Xerxes. Teribazus was a young officer in the Persian army ; his mind was susceptible and elegant, and enriched with knowledge. He had long entertained a passion for Ariana, who cherished as warm a flame for him : they kept their love, however, a secret from each other ; as they could not hope to be united in marriage, from the inequality  
of



of their stations. The soliloquy of Teribazus before the expedition of Xerxes against Greece, is natural and tender.

' Yet thus to love, despairing to possess,  
Of all the torments, by relentless fate  
On life inflicted, is the most severe.  
Do I not feel thy warnings in my breast,  
That flight alone can save me? I will go  
Back to the learn'd Chaldeans, on the banks  
Of Ganges seek the sages; where to heav'n  
With thee my elevated soul shall tow'r.  
O wretched Teribazus! all conspires  
Against thy peace. Our mighty lord prepares  
To overwhelm the Grecians. Ev'ry youth  
Is call'd to war; and I, who lately pois'd  
With no inglorious arm the soldier's lance,  
Who near the side of Hyperanthes fought,  
Must join the throng. How therefore can I fly  
From Ariana, who with Asia's queens  
The splendid camp of Xerxes must adorn?  
Then be it so. Again I will adore  
Her gentle virtues. Her delightful voice,  
Her gracious sweetness shall again diffuse  
Resistless magic through my ravish'd heart;  
Till passion, thus with double rage inflam'd,  
Swells to distraction in my tortur'd breast,  
Then—but in vain through darkness do I search  
My fate—Despair and fortune be my guides.'

The reader, perhaps, will wish to know the fate of these lovers. The unfortunate passion of Teribazus hurries on his valour to the most dangerous exploits. He is slain by Dithyrambus. Ariana comes to the Grecian camp to beg the body of her lover, which Leonidas grants her with the sympathy of a hero. Her lamentation over the corpse, and the four lines after it, unfold the catastrophe.

' O torn for ever from these weeping eyes!  
Thou, who despairing to obtain a heart,  
Which then most lov'd thee, didst untimely yield  
Thy life to fate's inevitable dart  
For her, who now in agony reveals  
Her tender passion, who repeats her vows  
To thy deaf ear, who fondly to her own  
Unites thy cheek insensible and cold.  
Alas! do those unmoving, ghastly orbs  
Perceive my gushing sorrow! Can that heart  
At my complaint dissolve the ice of death  
To share my sufferings! Never, never more  
Shall Ariana bend a list'ning ear  
To thy enchanting eloquence, nor feast  
Her mind on wisdom from thy copious tongue!  
Oh! bitter, insurmountable distress?

' She could no more. Invincible despair  
Suppress'd all utterance. As a marble form,  
Fix'd on the solemn sepulcher, inclines  
The silent head in imitated woe

O'er

O'er some dead hero, whom his country lov'd;  
 Entranc'd by anguish, o'er the breathless clay  
 So hung the princess. On the gory breach,  
 Whence life had issu'd by the fatal blow,  
 Mute for a space and motionless she gaz'd;  
 When thus in accents firm. Imperial pomp,  
 Foe to my quiet, take my last farewell.  
 There is a state, where only virtue holds  
 The rank supreme. My Teribazus there  
 From his high order must descend to mine.

' Then with no trembling hand, no change of look  
 She drew a poniard, which her garment veil'd;  
 And instant sheathing in her heart the blade,  
 On her slain lover silent sunk in death.'

We shall give one instance of the propriety and elegance of his similes: this example is equalled in many passages of the poem. Melissa, the priestess of the Muses, on hearing of the death of her father Oileus, says,

' Placid were his days,  
 Which flow'd through blessings As a river pure,  
 Whose sides are flow'ry, and whose meadows fair,  
 Meets in his course a subterranean void;  
 There dips his silver head, again to rise,  
 And, rising, glide through flow'rs and meadows new.  
 So shall Oileus in those happier fields,  
 Where never tempests roar, nor humid clouds  
 In mists dissolve, nor white-descending flakes  
 Of winter violate th' eternal green;  
 Where never gloom of trouble shades the mind,  
 Nor gust of passion heaves the quiet breast,  
 Nor dews of grief are sprinkled.'

In the twelfth book, fire is set to the Persian camp in the night, by the command of Leonidas. In describing its devastation, Mr. Glover shows that he can paint the scenes of War as well as those of Flora and of Love.

' At the hero's nod  
 Devouring Vulcan riots on the stores  
 Of Ceres, empty'd of the ripen'd grain,  
 On all the tribute from her meadows brown,  
 By rich Thessalia render'd to the scythe.  
 A flood of fire envelopes all the ground.  
 The cordage bursts around the blazing tents.  
 Down sink the roofs on suffocated throngs.  
 Close-wedg'd by fear. The Libyan chariot burns.  
 Th' Arabian camel, and the Persian steed  
 Bound through a burning deluge. Wild with pain  
 They shake their singed manes. Their madding hoofs.  
 Dash through the blood of thousands, mix'd with flames,  
 Which rage, augmented by the whirlwind's blast.'

In this edition the poem is corrected throughout; the characters of Oileus, Meliboeus, Melissa, Artuchus, Æschylus, and Artemisia, are entirely new: the two last are taken from history. Æschylus was a distinguished warrior, and tragick

poet



poet of Athens. Artemisia, the queen of Caria, is celebrated by Herodotus for her martial spirit, and abilities in council. Most of the old characters appear in new situations. The author has likewise now extended his work to twelve books, which before only consisted of nine. A Blackmore might imitate Virgil in the division of an epic poem; but to resemble the majesty of the Mantuan bard is only granted to such a genius as Mr. Glover.

IX. *A Familiar Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Perspective.* By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 8vo. 5s. boards. Johnson.

THE greatest difficulty in attaining the knowledge of any art or science, most undoubtedly consists in forming a just idea of its elementary principles, and of the definitions employed in it; for this reason, every author who attempts to explain the sciences, should endeavour to render the general principles as plain, intelligible, and obvious as possible; it were therefore sincerely to be wished, that every future writer upon Perspective, would strictly confine himself to the use of those definitions which Dr. Brook Taylor (to whom we are indebted for the best book of linear perspective, perhaps, ever yet published) has advanced in that celebrated performance. He found it absolutely necessary in order to render the principles of the art more general, to consider the subject entirely anew, as if it had never been treated of before. The principles of the old perspective were of too narrow and confined a nature to be of any use in his design. He was therefore forced to invent new terms of art, those already in use being peculiarly adapted to the imperfect notions which were then conceived of this science. The term of Horizontal Line, for instance, is apt to confine the notions of a learner to the Plane of the Horizon, and to make him imagine, that that plane enjoys some particular privileges, which makes the figures in it more easy, and more convenient to be described, by the means of that horizontal line, than the figures in any other plane; as if all other planes might not as conveniently be handled, by finding other lines of the same nature belonging to them: upon this account, Dr. Taylor makes no difference between the plane of the horizon, and any other plane whatsoever; for since planes, as planes, are alike in geometry, it is most proper to consider them as so, and to explain their properties in general, leaving the artist himself to apply them in particular cases as occasion may require.

To those who are well acquainted with the elements of geometry, this method of perspective will appear very concise and

elegant ; yet, on the other hand, where practice alone is required, it may, as Dr. Priestly justly observes, be readily attained without much previous knowledge in the mathematical science. This, continues our author, I found by experience ; for, notwithstanding, ‘ I got a general idea of the theory of perspective pretty early, at the time that I attended to other branches of mathematical science, I was not capable of making a draught of any thing, till I was under a necessity of having original drawings of electrical machines and apparatus, and was in a situation where I could not find any person to make them for me. At first I puzzled myself with several mechanical methods of drawing, but though I made considerable improvements in some of them, I was obliged, at last, to have recourse to the rules of perspective. I found them, however, so immethodically digested, or so insufficiently explained, that, in several cases, I was able to investigate the rule myself, from considering the nature of the thing, sooner than I could find it in the books ; and after all, the drawings that I did make at that time, were executed when I had a very imperfect knowledge of the art.

‘ The embarrassment I then found myself in, made me attend to the subject afterwards, when I was more at leisure for it. Having struggled with the difficulties myself, and writing while the idea of them is fresh in my memory, I hope, that I have been better able to obviate, or remove them, for the benefit of others. I have been willing, however, to make the attempt, and I flatter myself, that any person, of the age and qualifications of those who ever think of learning to draw, may, by help of this treatise, without any instructor, make themselves masters of every thing that is essential to this art. Less than a week, I am pretty clearly of opinion, would be sufficient for a master of the art to instruct another in it, in the method here laid down ; and a few hours would be sufficient to give a person, who has a previous knowledge of geometry, a perfect idea of all the real varieties that can possibly occur in the practice of it.’

With regard to the work itself, which the author modestly terms only a *Familiar Introduction* to the Theory and Practice of Perspective, and is therefore, by no means, intended to supersede other valuable performances ; it appears, as far as we are able to judge, to be executed with a considerable degree of accuracy. The theory is clear and satisfactory, the definitions and technical terms reduced to as few as the nature of the subject will admit ; and the practical part laid down in a very comprehensive and familiar manner. We therefore recommend this work as worthy the perusal of those who are desirous of attaining a competent knowledge in the art of linear perspective.



X. *A Voyage through Hell, by the Invincible Man of War, Captain Single Eye, Commander; dedicated to your Grandfather.* 8vo. 4s. Richardson and Urquhart.

THE title of this book is not less curious than its contents; and we defy the most sagacious of mortals to find out the merit of the performance, or to afford us the least probable guess at the design of the writer. In a word, he is truly an original, and we hope never to see any servile imitators of so vile a rhapsody. We are presented at the beginning with a long list of the *Dramatis Personæ*. But if the reader insists upon our informing him of the reason why these persons are introduced, and what part they are to act, we must fairly tell him, it is not in our power. We will, however, produce a few of those personages to their notice. Captain Single Eye is commander, then follows a list of warrant and commissioned officers: First lieutenant, Mr. Pureviews; second ditto, Mr. Strong; third ditto, Mr. Hopewell; fourth ditto, Mr. Standfast; parson of the ship, Mr. Truth-and-day-light; *cum multis aliis ejusdem generis*. If it is possible to collect any thing from this performance, it is, that the author designs to laugh at the established religion, and is no small favourer of the predestinarian scheme, as well as that of faith without works.—Now for a specimen,

‘ You, my fellow mortals of the town of Legality, to you I address myself; I am led to judge that the eyes of your minds are fixed upon objects that cannot yield you any true happiness; while your views are fixed upon any creature attainments, you may be very sure to meet with disappointments; and if you expect any spiritual life from that quarter, you may depend upon coming short of it, because it is seeking the living among the dead, for by the deeds of the law can no flesh be justified; for if there had been a law which could have given life, verily righteousness should have been by that law; besides, you are declared without power, and without strength; nay, even dead in trespasses and sins; and by the law is the knowledge of sin; nay, the law was given, that the offence might abound; and he that is guilty of the breach, but even of the least of these commandments, is guilty of the breach of the whole law; and no unclean thing can enter the kingdom of heaven; but, saith the apostle, “ We are all as an unclean thing, and there is none that doth good, no not one.” The law is that flaming sword, that is set to keep the way of the tree of life, and will kill the spirit that thus approaches to the tree of life, and it is its proper office to kill every soul in the world; for, saith Christ, “ except a man lose his life, he cannot find it;” you are wanting

to attain to spiritual life in a way clearly opposite to God's own faithful declaration; you are stumbling among dark mountains, in the valley of the shadow of death, buoyed up with only the hopes of the hypocrite, your own consciences condemning you; and if so, God is greater than your consciences, and will also condemn you; Christ saith, speaking in the name of God, "I am the way, the truth and the life." God is a spirit, and those that worship him, must worship him in spirit and in truth, for the flesh profiteth nothing, it is the spirit that quickeneth; no man can see God till he has lost the life of all fleshly hopes; God has everlastingly secured that way, it is by a death, and resurrection in spirit, that God is seen, and spiritually known; then, and not till then, the spirit becomes acquainted with God in spirit, becomes married to the Lord; and as it stands divorced from all its former hopes and lovers, then, and not till then, it becomes at liberty to be married to another, even to the Lord, whom it joyfully takes for its wisdom, righteousness, sanctification, and redemption, and thus its Maker becomes its husband; the Lord of Hosts is his name; and thus the spirit's wounds are healed, while she sits under her own vine, and under her own fig-tree; and nothing can make her afraid, while she thus sits admiring the beauties and wisdom of her glorious Maker and husband, while he sweetly teaches her the following lessons.

But these lessons being rather long, and not very edifying, we must take leave to omit them, and refer the reader to the book itself, if he wishes to indulge his curiosity any further.

The next circumstance which raises our admiration is the curious revival of some of the cant terms which were in use with the religious army of Oliver Cromwell; for this purpose, we are under the necessity to quote more of this work than is agreeable to us, rather to give our readers some idea of its want of merit, than to raise its author into consequence; — we (meaning the ship's crew) 'fell down the coast a little way, and let go our anchor off the town of Conviction, not above a musket-shot from the shore, and there we lay, to give any of the people an opportunity to go on shore, to buy whatsoever they should want for the whole remaining part of the voyage.

You must note this was a *medicinal* town, not many inhabitants, except what were either chemists, druggists, apothecaries, doctors, distillers, &c. for this town's dependence was upon foreigners and strangers; so our people went on shore, first, one boatfull, and then another, till the whole that wanted had gone, and every one came loaded on board, for they laid out a good deal of money in this town; and all partly bought the same kind of merchandize, which were chiefly as follows:



*ollows*: the oil of merit, mediatorial powder, syrup of faith, tincture of resolution, spirits of hope, the syrup of love, the oil of constancy, and a few grains of the powder of zeal; eye-salve, plaisters, bandages, and lancets of conviction, *some made ones*; a bottle of kill-sin, a bottle of piety-water, a bottle of conviction-drops, a drachm of sincerity, balsam of hearts-ease, &c. and every man much the same, both as to sorts and quality.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

11. *A Plea in Favour of the Shipwrights belonging to the Royal Dock-Yards, humbly offering Reasons to the Public for an Addition to their Pay: With a Method to effect it.* By W. S. 8vo. 6d. Crowder.

WHEN we first took up this pamphlet, we were in hopes to have met with a sober performance, in which the case of his majesty's shipwrights was dispassionately drawn up, and their petition urged with a modesty becoming the humble rank they hold among his servants. Instead, however, of a plain narrative, and a decent recommendation of their complaint, we have had the mortification to peruse a heap of unargumentative stuff, which is at once written with affectation, and enforced with a more ridiculous species of vehemence than we ever yet remember to have encountered in any of our literary rambles. Instead of attempting seriously to remove such a block of shapeless timber as this, we shall content ourselves with taking off a few of its chips, and leave the reader to make a bonfire with the rest.

The writer of this pamphlet asserts, that a man whose pay does not exceed twelve shillings and six pence per week, cannot afford to marry; and thus pompously he reasons on the consequences of celibacy. 'The decrease of population is not the only evil consequent on discouraging matrimony; for young men feeling the common propensities of human nature, they of necessity must support a *constant, fierce, and unnatural conflict with themselves*; or plunge into licentiousness, by flying to the polluted bosom of a prostitute, or falling into the deeper guilt of adultery. Thus a nation is not only weakened by depopulation, which is truly alarming, but also loaded with criminality, which is yet more dreadful.'

We do not clearly understand what is meant by this *constant, fierce, and unnatural conflict with themselves*; and ill would it become the Reviewers, should they strive to conceal their ignorance on any occasion.

Our author next expatiates, with no less inflation of style, on the dignity of a shipwright, as follows:

'The shipwrights of our day, instead of being able to ap-

pear with that decent pride and peculiar alertness which distinguished them in their better days, are obliged to wear the mean garb of poverty, and carry in their countenances the intrenched marks of inward depression: instead of engaging in their laborious employ with their usual alacrity, and exercising the *various postures and flexions of their bodies with their former easy address*; now they are obliged, for want of due nourishment, to bend under their labour, and *paralytically tremble in the exertions of their strength.*

From these *various postures and flexions of their bodies, together with their former easy address*, we should be tempted to believe that the ancient shipwrights were very expert in dancing; and indeed, like the barber-surgeons, united two professions: that, like Sir Andrew Aguecheek, they tripped through Deptford yard in a galliard, and went home from that of Chatham in a coranto; that their *common walk was a jig, and that they would not so much as make water but in a sink-apace.* From the conclusion of the same paragraph we should conceive, that modern shipwrights are by no means able to dance as gracefully as their predecessors; that his majesty's dock-yards contain only a parcel of poor paralytic skeletons, who shake like Chinese figures on a chimney-piece; and that any one of them, as Falstaff says, *can creep through an alderman's thumb-ring, and is not more than an eagle's talon about the waist.*

One of our author's next arguments is to prove that shipwrights have *better stomachs* than either soldiers or sailors. This disquisition, though it appears slender at first sight, is certainly of great consequence to the public, and deserves to be entered into with all proper deliberation. We have been constantly taught to consider the Critical Reviewers as having the greatest stomachs, and the least proportion of food to gratify them, of any men living; but are now comforted by finding that we have brothers in misfortune, who suffer as much from the calls of hunger, and the sharp pinches of necessity, as ourselves.

We will not take up more of our reader's time than is just necessary to point out to him the precise object which this pamphlet is written to obtain, viz. 'Two shillings and six-pence per day, as a bare day's pay, together with extra-work in the summer season; (they, on their part, chearfully giving up their right to the chips) which would'——would do what, says the reader? Take the rest in the author's own tumour of expression——'would strike the tongue of riot dumb for ever, and *are* their whole body with a grateful sense of the obligation.'

The late conflagration at Portsmouth seems to break out afresh in this last paragraph; and, from the motly style of the whole performance, we shall not hesitate to say, we believe it to have been the joint composition of all the officers in all his majesty's



majesty's yards, from the great and mighty masters attendant, down to the cabin-boys, powder-monkeys, and old women who steal the chips.

We wish all success to our shipwrights, but cannot help our belief that they are as well paid in proportion to their merits, as any other carpenters in the kingdom; and without the spirit of prophecy can venture to assure them, that if ever their wages should be raised, it will not be in consequence of the labours of Mr. W. S. who seems, like Shakespeare's pedant, to have been *at the feast of languages, and to have brought away all the scraps.*

12. *Two Speeches of a late Lord Chancellor.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Almon.

The utmost sketch of critical sagacity will not afford us a reason to account for the appearance of these speeches particularly at this time, unless it was with a view to make the purchasers believe they were the production of a much later chancellor than they really are. Something of this kind of literary jockeyship appears in the present case; and it is that sort of deception which is not easy to be discovered before you buy the book. The subject of the first speech relates to the abolition of heretable jurisdictions in Scotland, which was in the year 1746. The other is upon the militia bill, in the year 1756. From hence let the reader judge what connection these speeches bear to the present face of affairs; or whether they can have any other merit to recommend them, but being the compositions of the great lord chancellor Hardwicke.

13. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Mansfield.* By John Miffing, Esq. Barrister of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 1s. Davies.

The labour and design of the present performance is to inform the good people of England, that they have a right to petition their king; to elect, or instruct their representatives; and are likewise entitled to freedom of debate. To all these propositions we readily join issue with our author; but when he comes to argue on the nature of these privileges, and to treat of the boundaries which the laws of society and reason assign them, we find him lost and bewildered.

The particular address to the noble lord, calls to our memory a circumstance which occurred at the trial to which this letter is supposed to have a reference; for at that time an excellent distinction was made by the judge, by which our author might have been benefited, and his work would not have been the worse for it. Since this original cause is at this time *sub judice*, we shall not enter further into the matter, but shall take our leave of the author and his Letter.

14. *An Enquiry into the Nature and Legality of Press Warrants.*  
8vo. 1s. Almon.

This is one of those subjects relative to which much may be said on both sides of the question. It will be necessary to take off somewhat of the gloss of argument which appeals to the passions, if we are desirous of receiving any information concerning a measure, which to this author appears so highly injurious and oppressive.—The exordium opens in the accustomed manner of the present patriotic writers: ‘Among the many daring attacks and infringements on the liberty of the subject, none demands a more serious consideration, than the present mode of impressing men, for the not as yet declared purposes of ministry; an expedient, it is true, resorted to by former administrations, but under circumstances, and at times, far different from the present.’

If any thing is to be collected from the above position, it is, that the present mode of pressing is entirely new, a mere novel custom; or, if such a method was put in practice by former administrations, it was for nobler and more important purposes than the present. This argument does not deserve a serious answer.

He then appeals to the feelings of humanity, which in his opinion furnish out an invincible argument against the power of raising seamen by the mode of pressing. He says, ‘The man of feelings and humanity cannot steel his heart against the impulses of compassion, nor shut his ears to the doleful complaints of anguish and distress; the repinings of widowed wives, or the tears of forlorn infants.’—Wherever this is the case, we heartily sympathize with our benevolent author. But let us look more closely into this matter; perhaps some of these frightful spectres may then vanish away. Every person must know from experience, that there are great numbers of persons who might be rendered serviceable to the world, but live by rapine, and are immersed in all sorts of infamy and disorder, to the great annoyance of the more civilized part of mankind. Now we apprehend, that the first intention of the legislature, in the act of pressing, is to take off some of these exuberant branches; and who is there that can lament the absence, for a few years, of such *peaceable neighbours*? In the next place, those men who have been in the sea-service become objects of the act of pressing. And we freely declare, that we do not see any great harm in this measure.

Upon the whole, this act of necessity has been so often discussed, that we do not expect to find any new lights thrown upon it. As to our own parts, we think that the treatise upon this subject, which was published by the late judge Foster, when



when he was recorder of Bristol, must quiet the mind of every sober citizen; for the *salus regni* is a consideration of such magnitude, that it ought to get the better of every inferior consideration.

15. *The Beginning, Progress, and Conclusion of the late War, with other interesting Matters, considered.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Almon.

Before we can be enabled to give, or entitled to attempt giving, an account of any work, we ought to read it carefully over. We have endeavoured to do this piece of justice to the performance now before us, but have not been able to complete the task. Periods of a mile, amazingly dull, tedious, and perplexed, with many words of most uncouth sound and import; such as *accroachings*, meaning, we imagine, encroachments; and *entirety*, a derivative, we suppose, from *entire*, must plead our excuse from the learned and ingenious author: we want none from the public.

16. *Antiquitates Sarisburienses.* 8vo. 3s. Horsfield.

This publication is of a miscellaneous nature. The contents of it are as follow:

I. A Dissertation on the Ancient Coins found at Old Sarum.—II. The Salisbury Ballad.—III. The History of Old Sarum, from the Arrival of the Romans, &c.—IV. Historical Memoirs relative to the City of New Sarum.—V. The Lives of the Bishops of Old and New Sarum.—VI. The Lives of Eminent Men, Natives of Salisbury.

With respect to this collection, we do not apprehend that it will be found either entertaining or interesting to any but those who are inhabitants of Salisbury. A veneration for the *natale solum* seems to be the principal design of the author in this compilation. The biographical part, which is the conclusion of the book, we think liable to much objection; and were we disposed to be severe, we should call it a faggot of unimportant trifles, published at various times, though for the single purpose of laying a tax on the public of three shillings.

17. *The Moral System of Moses.* By Samuel Pye, M. D. Member of the College of Physicians, Author of the *Mosaic Theory of the Solar, or Planetary System.* 5s. Doddsley.

However distinct the business of a physician may be from one whose profession is more immediately designed to give an answer to every one that asks him a reason of the faith that is in him; yet, when we consider the nature of the education of the former, and the opportunities he has of tracing out the great Author of the universe in the works of the creation, it must

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with truth be acknowledged, that many of his profession are properly furnished with qualifications necessary for disquisitions of this kind; and many of them have given ample proofs of their knowledge in sacred science.

Every attempt that tends to make the sacred writings better understood by all degrees of men, is highly laudable in itself, and of service to the general interests of mankind; and no helps can be thought superfluous in these days, which seem to boast of being ignorant of the most important truths.

The present, as well as the former work, in which this author has been engaged, seems to have proceeded from a thorough conviction of the importance of the subject, as well as a desire of doing his utmost to investigate sacred truth.

The particulars which the author hath chosen for his enquiry, are those against which the pointless darts of infidelity have been repeatedly levelled, down from lord Herbert of Cherbury, to the puny champion of Geneva. Like a true master builder, he looks well to his foundation; being thoroughly assured that the strength of the superstructure must chiefly depend upon its being properly laid.

The particulars in which we are instructed by Moses, are such as no other writer could have informed us of. To him we are indebted for the knowledge of the creation of all things; of the first parents of the human race; the inventors of arts; the origin of nations; the founders of kingdoms and empires; the institution of laws; the fountain of religious rites; and we may add, of the ancient mythology: but what is of greater consequence, the means of forming a true sense of God and religion; by what means religion came afterwards to be corrupted; and the progress of that corruption.

It appears from the work before us, that the author adheres very closely to verbal criticism, and the natural interpretation of things; and we may venture to affirm, that very good reasons may be given for believing the accounts which Moses has left us, without having recourse to the subterfuge of allegory on every occasion.

A fondness for allegory has been the parent of much absurdity, and in none more conspicuous than the disciples of Hutchinson, and shall we say even the polished Middleton? The admirers of this scheme invert the old maxim, *ex nihilo nihil fit*, for they will produce *ex nihilo omne aliquid*.

We are happy to find that our author coincides so exactly with the learned and judicious critic, Dr. Kennicott, to whose Tree of Life he so pertinently refers. That work was indeed



the first fruits of the doctor's critical knowledge, but has since been distinguished by his indefatigable labours, and rewarded with every possible mark of favour from the literati in all parts of the world.

We shall close our observations on this article with remarking, that as the work is divided into chapters, mostly of an argumentative nature, we cannot, without doing an injury, give a partial extract from the work itself; we will therefore venture to assure the reader, that he will meet, in the perusal of it, with many things new, ingenious, and important.

18. *The Adventures of a Bank Note.* 2 Vols. 8vo. 5s. sewed.  
Davies.

Not to allow some compassion to laborious dullness, would be cruel and inhuman; but when a writer of ability does not exert himself for the entertainment of the public, he deserves to be severely reprehended.—The author before us is not unacquainted with human nature; and exposes, with humour, the vices and follies of the age; but is too often hurried, by a lively imagination, into a negligence of composition, and looseness of expression.—These faults will, we hope, be avoided in the continuation of this work, which, with many imperfections, is not without its merit.

19. *Letters concerning England, Holland, and Italy.* By Madam du Bocage; Member of the Academies of Padua, Bologna, Rome, and Lyons. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Dilly.

The agreeable levity with which Madame du Bocage writes, is characteristic of the French nation. We should, however, be unjust were we to rest all her merit on her manner. Her good sense and uncommon erudition, joined with the art of representing every object of which she treats in a new light, are eminently conspicuous through all her Letters, while they are perused in her native language. These excellencies are indeed much obscured by the servility and awkwardness of the translator, whose prose is in general stiff, and whose attempts, to do justice to her poetical compositions, with which these volumes are copiously interspersed, are always unsuccessful, we might say even below contempt. We would recommend the original to our readers, though truth will not permit us to speak favourably of it in its English habit, in which the mind of the lovely authoress appears to as little advantage, as would her person, if dressed after the clumsy fashion of Amsterdam.

Madame du Bocage has gained no small degree of reputation abroad. She has published an Imitation of Milton's Paradise

Paradise Lost, under the title of *Le Paradis Terrestre*. She is author of the *Amazons*, a Tragedy, which has been both acted with applause and read with pleasure. She likewise favoured the world with a paraphrastic version of Mr. Pope's *Temple of Fame*, by which she obtained the prize at the Academy of Rouen, where she was born. Christopher Columbus is the hero of an epic poem of her's called the *Columbiade*; and many are the translations and smaller poems for which the French nation is indebted to her industry and genius. To conclude, princes, cardinals, and popes have contended who should compliment and entertain her with the greatest politeness; and none but her present translator seems to have treated her in a manner unworthy her literary deserts.

20. *The Undutiful Daughter; or the History of Miss Goodwin.*  
Three Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Noble.

As these volumes contain some good advice for the benefit of young ladies of the present age, they may be safely recommended to their perusal.

Miss Goodwin is the daughter of very worthy and indulgent parents, with two thousand pounds at her own disposal.—In the gallery at the Opera House she meets with a young fellow, who endeavours to make himself agreeable to her, merely for the sake of her legacy.—Eliza, taken with his not unpleasing person, and flattered by the number of fine speeches which he addressed to her, encourages him to follow her.—She is assisted by her mother's maid, who connives at her interviews with her lover.—Mr. Dunning honestly enough tells Eliza that he has not any money, and excuses himself from asking the consent of her father, by urging the certainty of a refusal.—Eliza, fancying herself extremely ill used, not only ridicules her father and mother for their kindly interesting themselves about her happiness, but promises to elope with her lover, in spite of the discreet advice given her by a young friend of hers, whose character is diametrically opposite to her own. The mother of that friend privately continues to inform Mrs. Goodwin of her daughter's intentions. Mrs. Goodwin reproaches Eliza, but rather with tender, than angry expressions.—Eliza is, at times, affected by her mother's very affectionate carriage to her; but she readily renews her correspondence with Dunning, who is all the while laughing at her, to a companion of his, for her passion for him, and declaring, that nothing but the hopes of becoming master of her fortune should prevail on him to marry her.—At length, Eliza makes her escape, and is married.—From that moment joy flies from her bosom. She soon finds that her husband is



is proud, idle, extravagant, and worthless in every respect. Her father and mother, however, are both reconciled to her, and settles part of their fortune upon her.—Dunning, after repeated ill treatment, endeavours to force her to give it up, but to no purpose,—Mrs. Dunning being with child, is exceedingly terrified by the sight of a young person whom her husband had debauched, plundered, and deserted, very near her time. The poor girl, after having been humanely, but too late, assisted by Mrs. Goodwin, dies in child-bed.—Eliza being in a short time afterwards delivered of a daughter, meets with the most cutting neglect from Dunning, who spends his whole life either among his libertine companions, or at the gaming-table.—Towards the conclusion of the story Mr. Goodwin, his wife, and his daughter are all involved in a great deal of distress, by the imprudent conduct of Dunning, who is arrested and hurried to Newgate, where he puts an end to his wretched existence with a pistol.—Before this shocking incident, however, Mrs. Goodwin dies; and Mr. Goodwin arrives just time enough to hear the last groan of his unfortunate child, and to take care of his little grand-daughter.

Many of our fair readers will find themselves interested in the history of Miss Goodwin, if they are of tender dispositions: and every daughter, in a situation similar to that of the heroine, feeling herself in the least inclined to be undutiful, should peruse it with particular attention.

21. *Fatal Friendship; a Novel. Two Vols. 12mo. By a Lady.*  
5s. Lowndes.

There is nothing in this novel to distinguish it from the common run of circulating productions.—To enter into a critique upon its literary merit would be to waste both time and paper.—The reader will notwithstanding find a great deal of business in the course of the piece, in which many amusing, some interesting, and a few affecting situations are introduced.—The authoress appears to be a great borrower, but has discovered no judgment in making free with a principal character in the Lady Julia Mandeville of Mrs. Brooke,—Miss Walpole, afterwards Mrs. Obrian, is closely copied, but in a very slovenly manner, from Lady Ann Wilmot.—Lady Ann, upon all occasions, talks like a woman of fashion, but the language of Mrs. Obrian is by no means the language of St. James's.—She has a *ton* peculiar to herself, the *bon ton* is very different.

22. *The Captive; or the History of Mrs. Clifford. Translated from the French. Two Vols. 5s. Rolon.*

If the translator of these volumes has been a *fidus interpres*, he has carried his literary fidelity a great deal too far, by doing  
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passages into English without considering whether the version of them would not render his judgment extremely disputable; whether, indeed, it would not tend to rank him among these *bright geniusses*, who are not overburthened with common sense. We would point out a few paragraphs, to evince the propriety of this stricture, were we not of opinion that it must prove more convenient for the literary reputation of the translator to consign the present work as soon as possible to oblivion.

23. *The Universal Botanist and Nurseryman: Containing Descriptions of the Species and Varieties of all the Trees, Shrubs, Herbs, Flowers, and Fruits, Natives and Exotics, at present cultivated in the European Nurseries, Greenhouses, and Stoves, or described by Modern Botanists; arranged according to the Linnæan System, with their Names in English. To which are added, a copious Botanical Glossary, several useful Catalogues and Indexes. Illustrated with elegant Engravings. By Richard Weston, Esq. 4 Vols. Vol. I. 8vo. 5s. in boards. Bell.*

An universal catalogue of vegetable productions is a work of so extensive a nature, that, to render it useful, it ought to be executed with as much brevity as possible; and a proper attention to this circumstance is a principal qualification of that before us, which appears to contain a larger variety of the various species of plants and shrubs than other performances of the kind. The author has restricted himself to the most characteristic descriptions of each vegetable, without swelling his work with a multiplicity of synonymous names. The English ones, however, are annexed to the description of every species, which is another considerable circumstance in favour of this catalogue.

24. *The Natural and Chemical Elements of Agriculture. Translated from the Latin of Count Gustavus Adolphus Gyllenborg. By John Mills, Esq. F. R. S. &c. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Bell.*

The original of this treatise has already been translated into several foreign languages, and has deservedly met with approbation. It contains an ingenious theoretical account of the principles of agriculture, deduced from a rational philosophy; a subject of inquiry which may be considered as of the same importance to an accomplished farmer, as the knowledge of the animal œconomy to a skilful physician. For though it is chiefly by practical observations that both are to cultivate their art, yet a competent acquaintance with the abstract elements of science may prove the means of suggesting useful expedients, and often facilitate the road to practice.

The first chapter of this volume treats of the constituent parts



parts of vegetables, as they are discovered by a chemical analysis. The second is employed on the principles of vegetation in general; and the third on the intrinsic power of seeds, whereby they multiply their kind. In the four subsequent chapters, the author considers the efficacy of heat, air, water, and earth, as far as they promote vegetation.

The remainder of the volume treats also, in a scientific manner, of the various kinds of soils, and the operations of agriculture. In regard to the translation, we need only observe, that it appears to be executed with accuracy.

25. *The Rational Farmer, or a Treatise on Agriculture and Tillage.*  
By Matthew Peters, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Flexney.

Mr. Peters appears, from this treatise, to be a man of sense and reflection.—He delivers his observations in a manner becoming a Rational Farmer, whom we shall always consider as a benefactor to the publick.

26. *An Epitome of Natural and Experimental Philosophy, including Geography, the Use of the Globes, &c.* By Benjamin Donn, 12mo. 2s. 9d. sewed. Kearsly.

This publication is principally intended for the use of such young persons as attend Mr. Donn's philosophical lectures; and is to be considered as an epitome of his lectures at large, with which he intends to favour the publick, when he has rendered them more complete.

27. *A Philosophical Enquiry into the Nature and Properties of Water. With elegant Copper-Plate Figures of the several Salts.* By J. Rotheram, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.

It appears that this Enquiry was originally undertaken for the satisfaction of the magistracy and inhabitants of Newcastle upon Tyne, in consequence of some late proposals for furnishing them with water. Previous to the examination of the waters in that neighbourhood, the author considers the several properties of that element in general, and the various kinds of it; such as rain, snow, and spring-water. Under the second of these articles we meet with the following observation, which, though it may appear of a trivial nature, Dr. Rotheram very justly remarks, is not unworthy the attention of philosophers.

\* One effect of snow, which I can assure my reader of, and which I do not remember any where to have read, is, that a certain quantity of it taken up fresh from the ground, and mixed in a flour pudding, will supply the place of eggs, and make it equally light: the quantity allotted is two table spoonfulls, instead of one egg; and if this proportion be much exceeded, the pudding will not adhere together, but will fall to pieces in boiling. I assert this from the experience of my own family; and any one, who chuses to try it, will find it to be fact.

28. *A Dissertation on the Spasmodic Asthma of Children: In a Letter to Dr. Millar. By Benjamin Rush, M. D. Professor of Chemistry, in the College of Philadelphia.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

The definition of the spasmodic asthma, which occurs in the beginning of this performance, is so extremely vague and indeterminate, that it is applicable not only to that disease, but to the last stage of a *phthisis pulmonalis*, and even to a common cold. The power of abstracting complex ideas, in framing definitions, is indeed a talent which we have not much room to expect in the present race of medical writers; and for that reason we should the more readily have excused the defect in the author of this pamphlet, had he in any measure supplied it by a tolerable description of the disease, which he has not so much as attempted.

29. *The putting on the New Man a certain Mark of the real Christian:—A Sermon preached at the Tabernacle, on the 5th of January, 1750. By the late rev. George Whitefield, M. A. Chaplain to the Countess of Huntingdon. Taken down in Short-Hand, and transcribed with great Care and Fidelity, by a Gentleman present.* 8vo. 6d. Towers.

The subject of this discourse is—Putting on the New Man, a certain mark of the real Christian.—It is said to have been taken down in short-hand as it was delivered, and to have been carefully transcribed, without any alterations or additions, by a constant hearer and admirer of the author, who has preserved it above twenty years, as a faithful catholic would preserve the beard of St. Anthony, or the breeches of Thomas à Becket. It is an incoherent rhapsody, so much in the usual stile and manner of the preacher to whom it is ascribed, that there can be no doubt about its authenticity.

••• We seldom take the trouble to answer any impertinent letters sent to us in consequence of our censures on dull performances: CRITO, however, shall have one.—When he published his *Reflections on the Ruins of an ancient Cathedral*, he transmitted a copy of them to us, and at the same time intimated his hopes that they might meet with favourable treatment. We reviewed his piece with a levity suitable to the nothingness of it; and, instead of exacuating our pen against the author, we only tickled him with its feather. In consequence of this, the exasperated poetaster sends us word, that we were unjustifiable in such proceeding; because the profits arising from the sale of the work were designed for the relief of an ingenious though depressed man. CRITO's opinion therefore is, that if bad verses are devoted to a charitable purpose, the sentence of critical justice is to be diverted from falling on them; and we suppose, by the same reasoning, had he relieved a beggar with bad halfpence, he would think they ought to pass current, because they were given under a benevolent pretence. This is one of the mean artifices of little minds, which strive to screen their private vanity under the mask of public generosity, and are only liberal in that which is of doubtful value.